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ABSTRACT

This document contains the report and edited papers from an international seminar emphasizing the sharing of ideas and resources to eliminate illiteracy. Chapter I of the seven-chapter report offers background information and seminar objectives. Chapter II provides a world overview, which describes the general development context of literacy. In chapter III, emphasis is on literacy in context. The role of national governments in eliminating illiteracy, the correlation between literacy and poverty, and the purpose of literacy are discussed. Chapter IV focuses on women and literacy. Chapter V discusses continuing education beyond literacy. Chapter VI suggests international cooperation in training and research and regional cooperation in training and research. Chapter VII discusses principles and problems of cooperation and provides two examples of cooperation: cooperation between international agencies and international assistance to a national literacy campaign. Appendix I contains case studies from selected countries. Literacy work is described in the Caribbean, China, Ethiopia, Burma, India, Botswana, Kenya, Mozambique, Spanish-speaking countries of Latin America, and Malawi. Appendix II is an excerpt, "The Price of Literacy," from "Literacy, Depression, and the Poor" (R. H. Green). Other appendixes include the program, list of participants, and descriptions of organizing institutions. (YLB)

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International Council
for Adult Education

Deutsche Stiftung für
internationale Entwicklung

One Billion Illiterates
One Billion Reasons for Action

Report and Extracts from Papers
of an International Seminar on:
Co-operating for Literacy
Berlin (West), October 1983

Paul Fordham (ed.)

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The Seminar on 'Co-operating for Literacy' was a follow-up of the Seminar on 'Campaigning for Literacy' (Udaipur, 1982) held in co-operation with the International Council for Adult Education and Seva Mandir. The report by H. S. Bhola (with Josef Müller and Piet Dijkstra), *The Promise of Literacy* can be obtained from Nomos Publishers, P.O. Box 6107, D-7570 Baden-Baden, West Germany at the price of DM 38. Institutions from third world countries may apply for a free copy from the German Foundation for International Development, Hans Boeckler Strasse 5, D-5300 Bonn 3. When ordering, please indicate DOK 1122 A/a.

Renewed dedication and effort at the national,
regional and international level is required
to overcome the intolerable situation
in which hundreds of millions of people find themselves.
The planetary dimensions and the unjust social
and human implications of illiteracy challenge
the conscience of the world.

Udaipur Literacy Declaration,
para 18. January 1982

The best contribution that a developing country
can make to international co-operation in literacy
is to set clearly its own goals and purposes
and make the most determined effort to reach these goals.

Manzoor Ahmed,
Seminar Paper

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Abbreviations

AAEA	African Adult Education Association
ATM	Action Training Model
BHN	basic human needs
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CODE	Canadian Organisation for Development through Education
CREFAL	Centro Regional de Educación Funcional para América Latina
DSE	Deutsche Stiftung für internationale Entwicklung (German Foundation for International Development)
DVV	Deutscher Volkshochschul-Verband (German Adult Education Association)
EWLP	Experimental World Literacy Programme
GTZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (German Agency for Technical Cooperation)
ICAE	International Council for Adult Education
IDA	International Development Association
IDRC	International Development Research Center
IEA	International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning
JAMAL	Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy
LDC	least developed countries
NFE	non-formal education
NIEO	new international economic order
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for International Development
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
UIE	UNESCO Institute of Education
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UPE	universal primary education
UPEL	Universal Primary Education and Literacy

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Foreword

This book brings together the report and edited papers from the international seminar *Co-operating for Literacy*, held in Berlin during October 1983. Attended by 72 people from 31 countries the seminar has already published a short report* intended for busy decision makers. The present volume includes and supplements material from the short report. It is hoped that it may provide support and encouragement to professionals and other enthusiasts in many countries, especially in the developing countries. As we said in our short report: „*Co-operation for Literacy* is the theme and the hope of this report. We commend it to all those engaged in the many tasks of national and international development."

Anil Bordia
Chairman of the Seminar

Yusuf Kassam
International Council for Adult Education

Josef Müller
Deutsche Stiftung für internationale Entwicklung (DSE)

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* *Co-operating for Literacy*, International Council for Adult Education and German Foundation for International Development, Bonn 1983.

I. Background and Objectives

Apart from the work in Berlin, we have since 1980 been able to build upon the experience of three other productive international seminars on literacy. Although this was the second to be sponsored jointly by the German Foundation for International Development (the DSE) and the International Council for Adult Education, there have been two more specialist seminars (Arusha, 1980 and Madras, 1982) sponsored by the International Institute for Educational Planning and UNESCO. The previous DSE/ICAE seminar was held at Udaipur, India in January 1982[1] and focussed particularly on mass campaigns. The present emphasis on 'international co-operation', is intended to develop further the means by which ideas and resources can be shared in a way which can best contribute towards the goal of eliminating illiteracy by the end of this century.

The Udaipur Seminar brought together countries which had had the experience of running reputedly successful literacy campaigns and others that were in the process or on the verge of conducting mass literacy campaigns. In the course of seven days of intensive discussions, participants accepted the centrality of literacy in the overall process of development. They also accepted the view that the universalisation of primary education for all school-age children and adult literacy outside the school will both have to be vehemently pursued if illiteracy in developing societies is to be totally eradicated. This view has been fully confirmed by UNESCO in its new Medium-Term Plan 1984—1989. The Udaipur Seminar saw in the mass campaign a strategy of promise and a level of response that was commensurate with the needs that exist.

Conscious of the need to arouse awareness and to mobilise international solidarity, participants in the seminar adopted the Udaipur Declaration which stated that renewed dedication and efforts at the national, regional and international level are required to overcome the intolerable situation in which hundreds of millions of people find themselves. Participants in the Udaipur Seminar were of the opinion that the unjust social and human implications of illiteracy challenge the conscience of the world and call for immediate action.

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1. Held in co-operation with Seva Mandir and reported in H.S. Bhola (with Josef Müller and Piet Dijkstra), *The Promise of Literacy*. Nomos Verlagsgesellschaft, Baden-Baden, 1983.

The objectives of the Berlin Seminar were as follows:

to review the major issues and problems of literacy work and to examine it in the context of the world economic crisis;

to discuss and scrutinise large-scale approaches towards literacy in comparison with selective and intensive approaches;

to incorporate women's perspectives on literacy programmes in view of the fact that women represent an overwhelming majority in such programmes;

to articulate the necessary links between literacy and adult continuing education programmes;

to review the steps involved in planning and implementing large-scale literacy programmes;

to examine and initiate possibilities of international co-operation.

In the event there was less emphasis on mass campaigns, more emphasis on the contexts within which literacy is achieved and an altogether healthy concentration on the ways in which co-operation can best be fostered. Nobody tried to impose their own schemes as suitable for all: everyone came prepared to listen and to learn. Perhaps one reason for this atmosphere was the declared intention *not* to pass resolutions or to make recommendations.

The Seminar brought together for the first time representatives of major development agencies, international and inter-governmental bodies and non-governmental organisations as well as experts. In all, the Seminar was attended by 72 people from 31 countries (See Appendix IV). And, as Dr. Dieter Danckwortt[2] noted in his opening address, this excellent response „was indeed surprising". He went on:

One billion illiterates in our world are calling for international action and co-operation. The years of the Second Development Decade have not succeeded in closing the gap between the rich and the poor. Some 800 million people are living in a state of poverty incommensurate with human dignity and from which they are powerless to escape. In consequence: combating mass poverty in developing countries is the primary task of German development policy.[3] This means, first and foremost, satisfying basic needs: food, clean drinking water, health, clothing, housing and education.

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2. Director, Education, Science and Documentation Centre, German Foundation for International Development.

3. Cf. Policy Paper on 'German Cooperation with Developing Countries', Bonn 1980, Chapters 10, 12, 28, 29 and the Resolution of the Federal Parliament of 5 March 1982 on Development Policy.

It is not our intention to develop concepts ourselves on how to satisfy these basic needs on behalf of the developing world. It is the task of Third World countries to develop their own concepts and strategies. Nevertheless, the satisfaction of basic human needs is a task of international solidarity as well. Upon request we are ready to meet this task. Our present priorities are in rural development, energy and the protection of natural resources. But the Federal Government is aware that education, especially basic education, is a basic need[4] which supports many other programmes; it is an activity that sustains and accelerates overall development. The close relationship between education and development makes it more appropriate to think of education, and especially of non-formal basic education, as a pervasive element that must be integrated into all developmental efforts.[5]

Last but not least education is a human right – and the promotion and protection of human rights is one of the basic objectives of German development policy.[6]

On behalf of the International Council of Adult Education, Yusuf Kassam noted the uniqueness of the Seminar both in its composition and because it sought „ways and means of promoting and intensifying international cooperation for literacy". He went on:

The critical need for increasing our efforts in literacy work on an international level has now become more important than ever before. Of course, the actual work is chiefly to be done at a national level but some international cooperation is necessary and important such as monitoring progress in literacy, sharing experiences in national literacy strategies involving mobilisation of human resources and the use of the organisational and administrative infrastructure, sharing of experiences in evaluation, teaching methods, production and design of teaching materials, methods of printing them and the availability of paper.

In carrying out literacy work, we must be careful that the campaigns against illiteracy do not become campaigns against illiterates. Literacy needs to be supported not because people who cannot read or write are not intelligent – in fact, they have to be often times more clever to get by without the written language – but because it gives them access to increased power and representation. The reasons to support literacy (and it may be better to focus on the support of literacy rather than the war against illiteracy) include the political, the ethical, the economic, the technological as well as the educational.

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4. Cf. *The Basic Needs Concept*. Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation, BMZ-Aktuell 6 November 1978.

5. World Bank, *Education Sector Policy Paper, Washington*, 1980, p.14.

6. Resolution of the Federal Parliament Policy of 5 March 1982 and Policy Paper on 'Cooperation with Developing Countries', Bonn, 1980, Chapter 13.

The Udaipur Declaration underlines the urgency of a world-wide commitment to achieving *Literacy for All by the Year 2000*. Should we have the year 2000 as the target?

Perhaps more important than the precise year of a target is the need to establish a strong and well supported International Literacy Working Group, preferably co-ordinated and run in a Third World nation which could:

monitor progress in literacy in all countries;

keep literacy consciousness high in the minds of various governments and agencies;

be a forum for international discussions on strategy and problems;

support the efforts of UNESCO, UNICEF, FAO, ILO and other organisations in this field;

provide a forum where governmental, non-governmental, trade union and other special groups would be welcome.

What is being proposed here is not the creation of another bureaucracy or another organisation but an active, knowledgeable and committed working group. The need, usefulness and feasibility of such a working group deserves some thought.

In concluding my remarks, the concern for literacy needs now to be recognised as a world-wide concern. The priority for funds must obviously go to Third World nations, but an international concern will be much stronger if it includes both rich and poor nations. There will be a large base for Third World financial support if the adult educators in the North are involved as well.

We want to support South-South co-operation in literacy. We want to support an increased international campaign of some kind for literacy. We support the positions outlined in the Udaipur Literacy Declaration. We should give more thought to what ways and how we can shape and influence the 1985 UNESCO Conference on Adult Education.

I conclude by expressing ICAE's thanks and appreciation to a number of bodies. Firstly to the German Foundation for International Development for its continuous support for this most important work in literacy and hope that its support and collaboration will continue. Secondly I must also thank UNESCO for its professional and personal commitments; to UNICEF for its long-term, but specially its recent and encouraging efforts in co-operation with UNESCO in the field of literacy.

Thanks and appreciation are also owed to a number of national governments which have already given us inspiration and hope – Tanzania, Nicaragua and Kenya, among others, represent fairly recent examples.

Finally, we must not forget ICAE's regional member organisations such as the Arab Literacy and Adult Education Organisation, the Arab Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organisation, the African Adult Education Association,

the Asian-South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education, the Latin American Council for Adult Education, and the Caribbean Regional Council for Adult Education for their efforts. The ICAE also commends the increasing efforts and attention paid to literacy work by the UNESCO Institute of Education in Hamburg and the International Institute for Educational Planning in Paris.

Participants in the Seminar – an attack against illiteracy.
In the forefront Paul Fordham, editor of the report.

II. The Case for Literacy: A World Overview

Investment in education is everywhere under scrutiny. The days are long past, when a simple and direct connection was assumed between investment in education and national development.

Global recession, the accompanying need to reconsider development priorities and the absence of any clear balance between the availability of education and the availability of paid jobs: all these have combined to question the importance of literacy as a priority development goal. When thousands of school leavers are unemployed, why should even more scarce resources be devoted to literacy, either for school-age children or for illiterate adults? Would it not be better to sacrifice early universal literacy – and other basic services – for the sake of boosting employment in directly productive sectors?

Now these are the kind of questions more frequently asked by development planners and by politicians than by educators. But if educators are to re-affirm their commitment to universal literacy by the year 2000 – as we did in Berlin – then educators themselves must also take a hand in answering the hard questions about development priorities as well as those about educational priorities. We must be able to justify our belief that literacy is today not only a basic human right, but also an essential tool for national development.

Of course, development may sometimes happen without recourse to literacy. For example, the farmer may be enabled to increase his production, perhaps with the help of an extension service using oral communication, in person or on the radio. But sooner or later, if the development process continues, if the economy becomes more complex and if basic services improve: in other words, if 'rural development' really begins to happen, then there will come a need for literacy. While it is useless to offer literacy *instead* of food, housing, water supplies or electricity, it may become uneconomic to offer them without it. Literacy may be only a part – but it is still an essential part – of the range of basic services which bring direct economic returns as well as direct social benefits.

> Lack of pure water and/or miles of walking to fetch it leaves less time for production and increases the likelihood of illness. Lack of vaccination, health education and basic curative services leaves workers and peasants too weak to be fully productive ... Illiteracy reduces workers' flexibility and

productivity even in 'simple' occupations such as peasant farming, construction or handicraft ...[7]

Some indication of the scale of the problem was presented by Arthur Gillette and John Ryan.[8]

The basic statistics on illiteracy are well known and certainly provide abundant reason to reflect upon the inequalities of our world. By the most recent estimate there are 824 million illiterates of fifteen years of age and above, over 800 million of whom live in the developing nations. While carefully compiled and calculated, these estimates have to be taken with a certain caution. First, while literacy is measured as a dichotomous variable, it is in fact a continuous one. It may not be possible to be a little bit pregnant, but it is certainly possible to be a little bit literate. Hence, the statistics depend upon where you draw the dividing line. UNESCO has its own definition: a person is literate 'who can with understanding both read and write a short simple statement on his everyday life'. Recognising that this included some who were not sufficiently literate to cope with the complexities of an industrial society, a committee of experts developed a second definition for functional literacy: to be functionally literate, an individual must be able to 'engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning of his group and community and also for enabling him to continue to use reading, writing and calculation for his own and the country's development'. As will be observed, the second definition is a relative measure. The criterion is the capacity to cope with the challenges and exigencies posed by the nature of the society in which one resides. Hence, even the concepts of literacy are slippery.

The operational definitions of these concepts – or others defined by countries themselves – are inherently more difficult. Often, literacy statistics are derived from census data on the educational profile of a society. Less frequently, they are based upon the respondent's self-assessment in response to a question such as 'Are you able to read?'. Far less frequently, they are based upon performance indicators: 'What does this say?'. Systematic efforts are being made by UNESCO to improve the coverage and comparability of national literacy statistics, but this is no modest task.

Do available statistics tend to over-estimate or under-estimate the number of illiterates? There are certainly good reasons to suspect it is the latter. Schooling may produce literacy, but experience shows that such attainments are highly perishable, if there are no regular opportunities to read and write. Hence, while there may be some who progress from illiteracy or semi-literacy as a result of informal learning opportunities in society, there are many more who relapse from literacy into illiteracy. In making self-assessments of literacy,

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7. R.H. Green, Paper on 'Literacy, Depression and the Poor'.
8. Paper on 'An Overview of the World Literacy Situation'.

the individual is probably inclined to give himself the benefit of the doubt. He may acquaint literacy with recognition of the Coca-Cola sign in neon and not with comprehension of a message. Lastly, statistics may involve a certain amount of political counting. One of the achievements of the post-war periods has been the emergence of national literacy statistics as a measure of national progress or shame. Only hard work will of course change the literacy situation, but the statistics are mere numbers on paper or in a computer. It is evidently easier to teach the computer to count less embarrassingly than it is to teach the illiterate to read. There are no international investigators going about looking for statisticians with guilt in their eyes or doctored data in their computers, but it is noted that those who come to power in revolution often count illiterates differently than did their predecessors. But whether there are 824 million or a 1,000 million illiterates, there are clearly too many of them.

What does illiteracy mean to the illiterate? Let us note first of all that the map of illiteracy closely coincides with the maps of poverty, malnutrition, ill-health, infant mortality, etc. Hence, in the typical case, the illiterate is not only unable to read and to write but he – or more usually she – is poor, hungry, vulnerable to illness, and uncertain that even his or her present miserable circumstances will not decline to the point where life itself becomes the issue. In these circumstances, does his or her literacy really matter? Would he or she even list illiteracy among life's major problems? While man does not live by bread alone, we can assume that the hunger of the body will normally take precedence over the hunger of the mind, particularly if the intellectual diet available to the new literate is as poor as is normally the case.

Hence, the best argument for doing something about illiteracy is not that it is part of the immense problem of inequality in our world, but that literacy can be part of the answer to remedying it. To what extent is this the case? Obviously, it is not possible to provide a general answer. It will depend primarily upon the social context but also upon the type and objectives of the literacy provided.

There is a great deal of discussion of the 'literacy technology' which has been developed in the Experimental World Literacy Programme[9] and in various national literacy campaigns, and we would not wish to minimise the importance of this. Certainly, we know far more today than we did two decades ago about the organisation of literacy activities. But the most fundamental requirement is still the desire of the participant to learn and, second only to that, the will of the instructor to teach. Where the motivations are present, even inefficient methodologies may succeed impressively. Where they are absent, the literacy course is at best a charade and, at worst, another instance of coercion:

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9. *The Experimental World Literacy Programme: A Critical Assessment*, UNESCO and UNDP, Paris, 1976.

the participant's attendance being an exaction and service to the authorities and not a positive educational act.

This motivation, in turn, will be largely determined by the participant's or potential participant's perception of the uses and utility of literacy and the 'doors' which he or she expects it will open in the struggle of life. If the choice is between being a literate subsistence farmer – scratching out a precarious survival from the landlord's soil – and an illiterate subsistence farmer facing the same fate, one should not expect the motivation for literacy to be very strong. Nor should one expect the rhetoric of certain government-paid orators proclaiming that 'times have changed' or the millenium arrived to move greatly the masses. They have heard it all before, many times. The orator mounts his jeep and disappears in a cloud of dust and life goes on as before. The authentic messages of changing times come through the market place and through tangible development projects. Actions speak more loudly than words.

Unfortunately, literacy courses have often been offered as the consolation prizes in the development sweepstakes. When governments did not have the money to provide roads, water, electricity or food, they have offered literacy courses instead. But this is no more than a futile effort to make bread without flour. Without the motivation of the learner, nothing is going to happen. The effects of the campaign will disappear as rapidly as the posters announcing its launching will fade under the tropical sun. A key issue is not 'literacy: yes or no?' but 'literacy for what?'. And unless you have an answer, you would be well advised to leave literacy alone. It is the literacy society which gives purpose and meaning to literacy. Hence, it is not necessarily less logical to start with post-literacy and work 'backward' towards literacy. Although the evidence is not clear-cut, it would appear that this is exactly what happened in many European countries.

What is certain is that mass illiteracy generates its own justification and logic. Nobody can read, hence communication is by oral rather than by written means. That being so, the illiterate is in no way marginal – he is on the centre stage – and consequently has no reason to learn to read. The problem is how to break this self-perpetuating and vicious cycle. We would argue that a first step lies in valorising the act of reading. Once the utility of reading is demonstrated, the nature of the problem is fundamentally changed, even if the problem itself remains. This is the first step in generating a beneficient cycle in which the controlling logic is: 'I must read, ergo, I must learn to read'.

In determining the place of literacy as a development priority the question of timing is all important. For the individual, unless he is motivated to learn, it is futile to offer a literacy programme. It is the same with nations. For them, the skill will be to seize the 'magic moment' to determine when *now* is the time to embark on an effective national programme. If political will is the essential starting point for literacy – as our seminar certainly

believed – good judgment about timing may be the essential ingredient for success.

Given that for many countries the time is clearly *now*, what emphasis should be placed on different aspects of work towards literacy? There has been much debate in recent years about the relative importance of Universal Primary Education (UPE) on the one hand and of mass adult education on the other. As Arthur Gillette and John Ryan noted:

Many specialists hold that massive illiteracy will only be wiped out by dogged, priority extension of Universal Primary Education (UPE). This was a main prognosis of the First African Regional Conference of Ministers of Education, held at Addis Ababa in 1961. Twenty-two years of experience have proved them neither right nor wrong. But there are others who believe that a massive literacy campaign among adults (many of whom are parents) quickens the pulse of educational expansion and thereby hastens the day when P.E. becomes U.P.E. Retrospectively, this seems to have been the Cuban approach. UNESCO has now adopted a medium approach. In a doctrinal innovation, the 4th Extraordinary Session of its General Conference (1982, opted for a dual strategy, combining formal and non-formal education: the extension and renovation of primary education coupled with renewed efforts for out-of-school literacy work among youth and adults.

Some advantages of this new approach are clear. For one, it holds out the prospect of avoiding wasteful duplication thanks, for example, to joint use of the same educational facilities, training of multipurpose educational staff, economies of scale in the procurement of paper and other educational implements, fuller and thus more rational use of vehicles and other infrastructure. The advantage of harnessing in-school and out-of-school action led the Arab States, at their 1976 Baghdad Conference on Literacy Strategy, to adopt an 'Arab Global Strategy' that advocates the simultaneous introduction of compulsory primary schooling and its co-ordination with literacy training.

The fact that this strategy has not had remarkable widespread success in the countries concerned may be attributed to non-educational factors. It is in any event no conclusive proof, as a specialist mischievously suggested to us, that the dual approach is like trying to advance by placing cart and horse side by side.

The Seminar agreed with Gillette and Ryan. The question of either UPE or adult literacy is a false antithesis and there was general welcome for the UNESCO dual strategy: the extension and improvement of primary education *and* renewed literacy efforts for out of school youth and adults. Without mass adult education, UPE alone would take 30 or more years to achieve universal literacy even if instantly established: without UPE, the effect of an adult literacy programme could only be temporary.

However, important though this dual strategy may be, it is not by itself enough. For we see literacy as far more than the acquisition of simple reading, writing and numeracy skills. Young people and newly literate adults must be able to use these basic skills for purposes which have clear meanings both for them and for the wider society. Access to newspapers, text books, stories and other reading matter is one necessary aspect of a literate environment. But so, too, is a broad range of non-formal adult education programmes both general and vocational. And it is here, of course, that literacy ceases to be the exclusive preserve of the educator. Personnel in health, agriculture and other sectors must all be brought in if literacy is to make its maximum impact. Co-operating for literacy makes as much sense within countries as it does at the international level. We return to adult *continuing* education in the section on 'Beyond Literacy' below.

Our definition of 'literacy' is therefore a wide one. We see it as having three inter-related components: (I) literacy for adults and out of school youth, (II) UPE and (III) adult continuing education. And all three must be seen and planned as part of the overall process of national development. To answer the question, why literacy? is as we see it intimately bound up with the question, what for?

Even so, there may still be sceptics who question the value of literacy for the answer is not always obvious. In industrialised countries, the 2.5% or more adult illiterates are clearly marginalised (though perhaps not as 'culturally deprived' as sometimes thought) since a modicum of literacy is the norm. But what of a country with the following traits: 95% adult illiteracy, less than half of the relevant cohort enters the first year of primary schooling; one in ten of those entrants reaches the sixth year of primary education; only 12% of the population speaks the language of school and adult literacy instruction; there are no libraries, a single bookshop and but one newspaper (four pages, published thrice weekly); the volume of wealth produced and traded in the monetary economy is far outstripped by that of the subsistence and barter sector; only ten per cent of the economically active population is engaged in 'modern' salaried employment requiring literacy.

What use is literacy here? Is it obscurantism that makes parents take their children out of school at sowing and harvest season – and then withdraw them altogether (the average annual GNP is about US $ 200 per capita)? Is the low motivation for literacy classes among adults mere muleheadedness and/or ignorance? Who is marginal in this society?

Ethics (and the Human Rights Declaration) suggests that universal literacy must be the long-term goal. But common sense reveals that a highly illiterate society is not necessarily 'ill' or struck by a 'plague' or 'culturally underdeveloped', as observers and experts sometimes say: it can, in fact, more or less

muddle through without mass literacy. Which is not to argue for mass illiteracy.[10]

It is sometimes asserted that enthusiasts for literacy ignore or undervalue the importance of oral cultures. Oral cultures have their own validity and they must not be devalued. It would be an unforgivable arrogance which equated illiteracy with ignorance or literacy with wisdom. What we do assert is that the ability to read and write is increasingly indispensable for living in all societies. Even where illiteracy rates are still high, there is plenty of evidence to show that illiterates do feel marginalised whenever they come close to the literate world.[11] And in countries with a long tradition of literacy on the one hand combined with high rates of illiteracy on the other, there is a clear connection between mass illiteracy and mass poverty. Moreover, the degree of literacy required is constantly rising. Gillette and Ryan posed the following:

Can you fill out your income tax return without having to re-read (and possibly re-re-read) whole sections of the instructions? Do you understand the central features of your country's economic policies, and of their interrelations with – and effects on – the economies of other regions of the world? Do you grasp the values (and dangers) of the ingredients of food and medicine stipulated on their containers? Are you able to operate portable video equipment? Can you decipher the insurance provisions spelled out on the counterfoil of an air ticket? And – the clincher – do you have the skills required to retrieve unaided from a computer simple information of use in your everyday professional and personal life?

Assume you live in virtually any urban centre in the world today and work, say, as a secondary school teacher. If you answer 'no' to more than two of these six questions, can you be considered effectively literate?[12]

The very idea of 'literacy' is in fact both complex and dynamic. Complex because it can only be defined in relation to a particular place and time: dynamic because the way we perceive it is bound to change as society itself is changing. This is one reason why 'innovations' have not always seemed to produce results or have become discredited. Either they have

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10. Gillette and Ryan, op.cit.

11. See, e.g. Yusuf Kassam, *Illiterate No More*, Tanzania Publishing House, Dar es Salaam, 1979.

12. Ibid. Both authors fail on questions one and six, and are unsure whether anyone qualifies on question two. (At the outset of the Bauhaus movement some 60 years ago, artist Moholy-Nagy argued that the literate of the future – us – would be those who know how to use a camera.)

been overtaken by events or too much has been expected of them. Gillette and Ryan enlarge on this issue in their comments on 'The Perils of Fadmanship'.

Fundamental education, 'animation rurale', out-of-school education, functional literacy, selective work-oriented functional literacy, non-formal education, basic needs in education, the dual strategy... Since World War II and the subsequent creation of world educational structures and programmes, some dozen successive waves of major international innovation have inundated education and educators.

Each wave has been generated by a strongly felt need – aspirated, as it were, by a vacuum – for new and different ways of approaching educational problems. Each wave has doubtless had a refreshing effect as it irrigated thought and action in literacy work. But, perhaps inevitably, a certain confusing splashyness has accompanied this succession of innovations, with some waves countering or overlapping one another and generally churning up the seascape without leaving much positive result.

Unfortunately, the successive innovative doctrines have often been perceived – if not always presented – as panaceas. But the bigger they come the harder they topple. Limited success, or downright failure (not always the 'fault' of a given innovation itself), dents hope, discourages, and may stimulate little more than the frenzied search for another new panacea. Is it a coincidence that, since the inconclusive termination of the Experimental World Literacy Programme that ended a decade ago, UNDP has offered but slim financing to literacy work?

Then there is the problem of lag. An ocean can be troubled by continuing swell long after the storm has passed; so, too, innovations designed and 'marketed' internationally can come to be adopted by a country years after they have been discarded at the world level. Witness the developing country that recently set up, with considerable fanfare, a national programme of functional literacy – a doctrine no longer enjoying most-favoured-innovation status internationally.

We are obviously not opposed to innovation. We do question innovation for innovation's sake, however. Fadmanship is not good workmanship.

When new ideas are overplayed they may be misconstrued. Examples:

> The first sentence of the Introduction of UNDP/UNESCO's evaluation of the EWLP says 'A fully literate world: such was not the immediate aim – still less the main result – of the Experimental World Literacy Programme' (EWLP, page 9).
>
> The headline and first sentence of an International Herald Tribune article (6 February 1976) on the EWLP evaluation: '10-Year-Old Program to End World Illiteracy (sic) Fails' – 'An ambitious Unesco project to eradicate

illiteracy (sic), begun a decade ago, has been a dismal failure, acording to the organisation's own report.'

Another danger is that too rigid a target (e.g. to eliminate illiteracy in X years) will not elicit the indispensible mass adhesion, even if it is properly understood, and that, for this or other reasons, it simply will not be met. In such cases a miss is worse than a mile: disappointed customers will not soon again come to your store.

One lesson that does seem to have been learned from recent decades of educational experimentation and innovation is the need to integrate literacy work with other development-related efforts. Illiteracy is co-extensive with underdevelopment; literacy must be integrated with vocational training and/or general education and/or political action and/or productive self-reliance work projects.

However in spite of the pitfalls and dangers, there are two over-riding reasons for literacy: its link with development and a range of broadly humanistic, idealistic reasons, especially relevant in the developing South. If there are close on one billion* adult illiterates in the world – as there are – then there are also one billion living reasons for literacy. Or, as an Indian participant put it: „I don't want to live in a society where literacy is the culture of only one part." And again, for the individual, literacy „gives a kind of faith, an ability to ask questions." We are therefore thinking of the role of literacy in a development which is not simply a notion in the mind of an economist, but a means by which millions of individuals can transform both themselves and their societies.

The illiterates are at a clear disadvantage when they try to participate in either the world of work or the world where decisions are made. They are increasingly dependent on others and denied access to written cultures or to further education: above all, they are not able to make a full contribution to the life and work of any nation.

There is a dynamic interplay between literacy and development at all levels of society. Literacy cannot be separated from the development process. If all the countries of the world are to move forward from stagnation, recession and despair they will need to generate a new 'climate of urgency' for literacy.

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* Defined as one thousand million.

Literacy in Context: A Botswana literacy group. No classroom teaching but mini-groups in the larger group.

III. Literacy in Context

We have so far mentioned the general development context of literacy, but not the particular political, social or economic circumstances where action actually takes place. There are general issues, like the correlation between illiteracy and poverty; or the fact that more women than men are illiterate; and these we must continue to emphasise. But we must also recognise that in literacy, as with other aspects of development strategy the initiative must rest in the first place with national governments.

Unless national governments themselves are prepared to give high priority to literacy, then illiteracy as a world problem will continue to grow. No amount of international recognition of the problem (e.g. in UNESCO), or of international co-operation, or of support from international or national aid and development agencies, will make any fundamental difference unless national governments themselves take the essential political decisions. There is very general agreement that the starting points for literacy are (I) clear political resolve to give it priority, and (II) full integration with each particular country's political and economic planning. Unless these starting points continue to be emphasised there will be disagreement and conflict rather than purposeful co-operation. An essential corollary is that all countries – and the international agencies – should seek to work within a framework of national sovereignty and decision taking. In taking these decisions all must have due regard for the co-existence in each country of both general and particular conditions. And the major general determinant is inevitably the present state of the world economy.

The seminar was reminded[13] just how difficult is the present state of affairs. From a period of optimism and growth between 1945 and the late 1960s, the world has moved to a point where there have been increasing strains and repeated shocks which the economic system could not manage. In real volume terms both world trade and world output per person have been static or declining for the first time since the 1930s.

Both globally and nationally the poor have been most severely affected by the continuing economic crisis. This is not to say they were doing particularly well during the period of optimism and growth. Even then there were growing inequalities between rich and poor countries with, in many cases, growing inequalities within countries. And the number of poor

13. In R.H. Green, op.cit.

and illiterate people increased in absolute terms even when the world economy was booming. Recession now increases both poverty and illiteracy alike, while at the same time it reduces the capacity of all countries to take effective action. More than ever it is a matter of choosing the right priorities; and more than ever it is necessary to encourage international co-operation if we are to maximise the effective use of very limited resources.

Even in the rich countries there has been decline in the quality and accessibility of basic services, but it is the poor countries who in general have suffered most. Within all countries it is the poor – especially the illiterate poor – who have been most hardly hit when there has been general economic decline.

Now we have already pointed out that the pragmatic case for literacy rests on its interaction with general development goals. The question of whether basic services should be sacrificed and inequalities increased in order to raise productivity is answered with a resounding, no – not merely because it would be unjust but because it would be inefficient. Moreover, if these development goals are part of a determined effort to alleviate poverty, then literacy – as part of basic services and the meeting of basic human needs – is itself a major contributor. „The history of literacy efforts is the history of varying and contending ideas about how literacy can and should serve the goal of meeting the basic needs."[14]

Further, especially in rural areas, access to basic services is an incentive to stay and produce as opposed to drifting into urban unemployment. In Africa above all, access to education, health services, water, fuel and knowledge of how to raise agricultural output and income – all of these come very high on what peasant producers themselves see as their priority needs.

In all this we are in no way asserting that a 'basic human needs' approach to development is by itself enough. We are aware of the powerful arguments now being put at the international level in favour of a new international economic order. At this level many developing countries are united in their determination to see a re-structuring of the world economy which reduces injustice and inequality. We do not dissent from these arguments. Nevertheless, at the national and local levels, meeting basic human needs is of continuing importance in the face of human indignity and human poverty.

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14. Manzoor Ahmed, Paper on 'Co-operation Among Developing Countries in Literacy – Issues and Prospects'.

The cases for a new international economic order and new *national* economic orders, are not contradictory. If we are to give high priority to reducing poverty and inequalities then we must also give high priority to literacy. The seminar was united in its view that some re-emphasis of these general purposes is now urgently necessary. If we pose the question: „literacy for whom?" the answer continues to be, for those who have least.

This was the underlying basis of agreement within the Seminar. Nevertheless, around these common concerns there were quite divergent views expressed about the means of arriving at agreed goals. These differing views were clearly enunciated in the lead papers of Reg Green[15] (expressing a basic needs approach) and of Harbans Bhola (arguing for the necessity of structural change and mass campaigns). It was around these two approaches that our general discussions and the other relevant papers/discussion notes[16] revolved. Reg Green began by emphasising the deteriorating world economy and within that general context posed the stark question: does meeting basic human needs still make good sense? And, even if it does, are basic services (including literacy) plus fairly remunerated employment still central to meeting basic human needs? He went on:

The right to literacy after all cannot be satisfied if the right to food is non-existent and leads to malnutrition among poor adults and children. When more production – especially of food and of basic consumer goods – is essential, does pure water supply become a dispensable amenity? When the need to reduce recurrent budget deficits is only too clear, how does one condemn raising primary school fees or support massive increases in full and part-time primary and adult education cadres?

It is necessary to face these questions seriously. To argue that some of the advocates of productionism through inequality always opposed universal access to basic services and always advocated treating the poor as irrelevant to development, does not by itself demonstrate that they are empirically wrong now as to the need to alter resource allocations against the poor and against basic services including literacy.

However, there is in fact a very good set of cases for increasing emphasis on basic human needs – including *production by the poor* – in the present economic crisis. The first of these is narrowly economic.

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15. Reginald Herbold Green, *Literacy, Depression and the Poor*: Irrelevant Expenditure or Urgent Necessity?

16. Notably those by C.P. Espinoza, H. Bergmann/U. Bude, H. Hinzen/J.Horn/W. Leumer/R. Neimann, Sylvain Lourié, Jorge Padua, D.V. Sharma and Paul Wangoola.

In most poor countries peasant and other small producers achieve higher output for most crops at lower infrastructural, scarce input and foreign exchange costs than do large commercial farmers and plantations. There are exceptions, but in general increases in agricultural production and increases in the incomes of poor peasants and – less uniformly – landless agricultural workers are complementary, not contradictory, goals.

For the non-agricultural sectors the correlation between increased use of domestic labour (especially unskilled or semi-skilled labour) relative to imported (or import intensive) capital equipment and increased production is not as uniform or strong as for agriculture.

However, in construction, in services (including commerce and storage), in maintenance and repair and in some sub-sectors within manufacturing, changes reducing the foreign exchange component in output, raising employment and – at the least – not substantially increasing the cost of output are possible.

Green's paper concluded that:

The universal employment or self employment at high enough productivity and fair remuneration to meet basic household consumption needs case remains valid. For many poor countries it appears to point to the only practicable route forward for any significant sector or sub-class, not just for the poor and for agriculture.

What of *basic services*? Are literacy (defined to include universal primary education, adult literacy and adult continuing education), health (basic preventative, health education and curative services), pure water and – less universally perhaps – access to fuel and to improved housing still critical or should their resource allocation be sacrificed to bolstering employment in directly productive sectors? The answer – even on narrowly economic grounds – is no.

Lack of pure water and/or miles of walking to fetch any water leaves less time for production and increases the likelihood of illness. Lack of vaccination, health education and basic curative services leaves workers and peasants too weak to be fully productive (as does malnutrition from too low wages and grower prices). Lack of accessible fuel has a somewhat similar impact to lack of water – especially in an increasing number of areas in Africa. Poor housing is a direct contributory factor to a number of diseases. Illiteracy reduces workers' flexibility and productivity even in 'simple' occupations such as peasant farming, construction or handicraft. All of these relationships are perfectly well documented at various levels of generality.

Further – especially in rural areas – access to basic services is an incentive to stay and to produce as opposed to drifting somewhere else to add to disguised unemployment or sub-marginal employment. Especially in Africa, access to education, health services, water, fuel and knowledge on how

to raise agricultural output (and thus income) come very high on what peasants perceive as their priority needs.

Production and *distribution* cannot really be separated – the pattern of who participates in production, how and of what is produced largely determines distribution. As pointed out above, a basic human needs oriented strategy of production increases emphasis on employment/self employment and on goods and services of direct interest to poor households. Similarly basic services – when made universal – by definition are largely used by the poor (at least in poor countries). Thus the changes in what is produced how would tend to alter distribution in favour of the poor.

It can be objected that the BHN case is narrowly pragmatic and economistic and says nothing of liberation or human fulfillment. In one sense that is clearly wrong. Production is important and employment is important. Without the first the possibility of meeting basic consumption and service needs does not exist. Without the latter the possibility will remain beyond the reach of the poor. Further, not simply political and social power but self respect are not independent of participation in knowledge – including production oriented knowledge – and production.

At another level it is hardly necessary to make out the normative case for absolute poverty eradication and progress toward meeting basic human needs. Whatever the debate on the desirable degree and methods of attaining equality, there is little serious argument against the propositions that absolute poverty is a moral scandal and that present Third World levels of inequality are grossly inequitable. What is most needed is a demonstration that the normative case does not conflict with, but complements, the pragmatic production/productivity restoration and enhancement case.

Liberation is a more elusive goal. A full definition of basic human needs (indeed even the ILO's, though not the World Bank's of basic needs) includes the right of communities and groups to self organisation and self expression. A shift of priorities to a basic needs (employment/basic services) oriented strategy would have a tendency toward making self organisation and self expression more generally attainable. However, it is by no means a sufficient condition. An authoritarian state might well seek to implement most of the employment – basic services – production triad (including real but circumscribed participation in decisions). It would not, however, seek to further liberation – *au contraire*. The nature of the necessary conditions for successful struggles toward human liberation go well beyond the scope of this paper. It is reasonable to assert that broadened literacy will often be a contributory but never a sufficient condition; but unrealistic to claim more.

The argument that a BHN strategy is an alternative to a new and less unequal international economic order is misleading – whether argued by proponents or opponents. The NIEO approach is concerned with participation in production, distribution and power at an international level. Its achievement would

make pursuing BHN strategies nationally easier economically and politically; for very poor economies it may be a necessary condition for any sustained progress by and for poor, illiterate, excluded human beings. But NIEO by itself would not define national economic orders – it would tend to strengthen almost all Third world states and economic strategies, not all of which are very pro-participation or anti-absolute poverty. BHN is, at the economic level, primarily about New *National* Economic Orders.[17]

The question of *empowerment* is at the centre of the disagreement between advocates of a BHN approach and the structuralists (e.g. H.S. Bhola). As we noted earlier, ideas of a New International Economic Order (which includes a re-distribution of power at the international level) were accepted by the Seminar as quite compatible with an emphasis on meeting basic needs. However, it is strongly asserted by some that this does not go far enough as an over-all strategy.

Bhola's position as the champion of the 'campaign approach' is now well known internationally in the world of literacy.[18] In his paper[19] there is a further development of the campaign idea – as a tool for *empowerment*. He writes:

I have now subjected the old theme of literacy to a different analytical perspective. I have started with an acceptance of the value position that to bring about authentic development, the people must be empowered. I then ask the following questions: Is literacy a tool of empowerment? and Does literacy constitute the best alternative? The thesis simply put, is this: a purely economic definition of development is not sufficient. Development should bring not only prosperity, but also a more just social order. A just order is impossible to bring about and maintain without a just distribution of power in the society. Literacy has the potential to empower the powerless and thereby help them in bringing about a just and moral social order. Finally, literacy is a better instrument of empowering the powerless than any other available alternative.

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17. R.H. Green, ibid.

18. *See Campaigning for Literacy*, UNESCO, Paris, 1982 and *The Promise of Literacy*, Baden-Baden, 1983. The UNESCO study includes a critical analysis of eight reputedly successful mass literacy campaigns of the 20th century – those of the USSR, Vietnam, the People's Republic of China, Cuba, Burma, Brazil, Tanzania and Somalia. Lessons from the analysis in regard to the planning, implementation, and evaluation of mass literacy campaigns are presented in a final chapter by way of a memorandum to decision-makers. The report is being re-issued as a publication by UNESCO in Arabic, English, French and Spanish. Copies may be obtained by writing to Dr. John W. Ryan, Literacy, Adult Education and Rural Development Division, UNESCO, 7 Place de Fontenoy, 75007 Paris, France.

19. 'The Power of Literacy (And of the Literacy Campaigns)'.

In a world where half of humankind is living on the level of starvation, economic production has to be an important part of the development agendas. But part is not whole. Development is more than bread. Development must ensure that the greater wealth produced in a society, is then more justly distributed. More importantly, development means that citizens of a society are *real* citizens. Each individual must have the right, and the opportunity to exercise the right to influence the 'means/ends calculus' to be used in the transformation of a given society as it moves towards development. In other words, citizens should be voluntary participants.

To be participants and to have the right and the opportunity to influence the means/ends calculus of development, individuals should be living in a society where there is an equitable distribution of power. An equitable distribution of power in a society is a necessary condition for a just and moral order. Irrespective of the ideological label applied to a society, if there is no equitable distribution of power, and if individuals and groups do not have the opportunity to influence the means/ends calculus of development in the society, then the most attractive and egalitarian political manifesto will become a cruel hoax and its manifestation will be neither just nor moral. A society of the powerless can never be a good society.

Pragmatists can already be heard whispering: Bread now, power later! We can't eat power! The fact is that we can eat power, by having the power to claim our share of the bread in the bread basket. Bread now, power later would make sense only in the context of a crisis in real place and time; people dying of hunger would, of course, need to be provided immediate succour. But in a policy and planning perspective, in the context of planned change and development, power is paramount and can not be separated from status and economic goods. The three go together.[20]

Now this is not a position that found universal acceptance in the Seminar. It was accepted that it would be appropriate in some circumstances, but not in others. As on so many occasions, in considering this view we were brought back again and again to the primacy of national decisions and national will, decisions taken within and for particular national contexts. It was not possible to prescribe a particular ideological position which had either universal acceptance or universal validity.

It was from the perspective of experience in Latin America that the Seminar was perhaps most helped to resolve the problem or polarization between those who emphasized 'empowerment' and those who emphasized 'basic needs'. In the paper by César Picón Espinoza[21] we were reminded

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20. H.S. Bhola, ibid.

21. 'Literacy Situation in the Spanish-Speaking Countries of Latin America'.

that there are many perceptions concerning illiteracy. These include:

(a) The idea of illiteracy as a principal cause of underdevelopment.

(b) Thus interpreted, illiteracy may be seen as an illness or 'social blindness'. Consequently „illiterates are ignorant people to whom 'the light of knowledge' must be given".

(c) Literacy work should be selective concentrating on those sectors of the population which will most enhance economic development.

(d) An alternative view is that illiteracy is one consequence of underdevelopment. Therefore *all* illiterates should be given preferential treatment.

(e) Literacy is a key element in development. It is both a basic human right and a major contributor to meeting basic human needs.

Pressing the point much further, there are some who would assert

(f) that illiteracy is a general phenomenon of a structural character related to social inequalities.

According to this view, to eradicate illiteracy implies a total reordering of national social structures and in that context to initiate and deepen egalitarian actions for equitable development to the benefit of the entire geographic area and of all sectors of the population, with a permanent and special attention to the less-favoured social and geographical areas. It is a tool in the process of global development and dynamic change of each national society, within the context of permanent education. In C.P. Espinoza's own words:

These and other views concerning illiteracy and literacy arise from the diverse ways in which literacy and its various connotations are understood in relation to countries and their destinies. This diversity of views about literacy and illiteracy is not just a mere divergence of opinion about educational development. Rather it is an ideological and political position concerning concrete national reality. These concrete realities include both *revolutionary and non-revolutionary situations*.

The historical experience of Latin America demonstrates that in the national situations in which significant changes have occurred, literacy has proved to be an essential component of each respective national project and it is seen as a political task with an educational dimension. Cuba, Nicaragua and Peru are objective examples of the importance of literacy in national and historical contexts in which a process of reordering and transformation of the national society is taking place, although with different ideological and political focuses.

In these situations, there is a highly favourable *momentum* for literacy and other areas of adult education. Particularly, literacy is assumed to be a national task in which there is a convergence between the will and political decisions of the people, their organizations and the State; it generates a social, political and educational dynamic of extraordinary impact, which makes possible the mobilization of social energies and resources to reach the nation's greatest objectives and goals.

When a country is experiencing a revolution, the literate, as well as the illiterate, feel and live through the impact that something new is happening in the country and, according to their respective levels of social consciousness, they feel that it is the moment in which they must participate in a collective and constructive work of a new society, a new way of life based on a new order of social justice and human solidarity.

To live in such a social, political and human environment is a great advantage. However, it would be unrealistic to say that just because in a national society some changes are taking place then everything is in place to develop successfully the literacy programmes. We know this is not the case. Consciences must be mobilized before beginning stentorian programmes that, in the end, will not give satisfactory results; it has to be shaped, theoretically and practically. A national project must be the most authentic manifestation of the people's vision and take into account their motivations, necessities and expectations.

Even in the most favourable revolutionary situations a great effort, a great capacity of management and convocation to join the different elements of a collective task is required because at times it could lead, because of its nature and characteristics, to the most basic forms of spontaneity; and some other times, to an excessively formal and vertical rigidness. In fact, the two successful experiences of massive literacy campaigns (Cuba and Nicaragua) give us empirical evidence concerning the extraordinary capacity of leadership and management necessary to carry out the literacy campaign (Cuba) and crusade (Nicaragua).

Does this mean that literacy campaigns can only be successful in national revolutionary situations? Is it not possible to hope that literacy may have sense and possibilities of relative success in other national situations in which deep social changes are not taking place?

The historical experience of the region is quite eloquent in this respect. During the advances or setback of the countries' endeavour to create a better life, it has been found that in the most difficult moments of political and military repression there are some spaces for action that people and their organizations can find and use profitably with secular wisdom. In fact, there are literacy actions which take place under representative governments, that demonstrate to the participants in adult education the vivid contradictions existing between reality and the perceptions of reality held by the governments.

It is then, in such situations, in which the supposedly national project does not coincide with the interests of popular classes that the gap between the 'official country' and the 'real country' constantly widens. It is at this point that literacy action, within the general strategy of the popular movements, has to outline coherent responses to the national situation and, within that situation, to the social temper closer to the specific one of the literacy campaigns.

In the light of all these statements, for different reasons in terms of motives and interests, the countries, as well as the people that do not live a revolutionary situation, have undertaken – and presumably will go on undertaking – literacy campaigns. What is of interest is to point out the fact that the full use of the literacy space available for literacy actions in regard to each national situation – at micro and macro levels – means devision or adopting a strategy that historically has been shown to be feasible and practicable. In other words, actions for literacy take place in national revolutionary *and* non-revolutionary situations, within which there are diverse social and political variances. The general product of a national experience cannot be transferred in either situation.

César Picón Espinoza went on to identify two main strategic approaches to literacy in Latin America: the 'structural-strategic' (with an emphasis on empowerment through political change) and the 'strategic'... a reforming character – that is, rather similar to that described above as meeting the basic needs – however defined in separate national terms. In his own words:

According to the first strategic approach, literacy is the educational component not only of illiteracy but also of the process of its solution, and it is a consequence of the underdevelopment, within which context poverty is one of its basic elements. National societies, to overcome such a situation, must define and implement basic structural changes. Hence, literacy is a task of a cultural, political, social and economic magnitude with an educational dimension.

In this vision, literacy is the result of the articulated political desires of people and Government. It is a national historical task, that demands an immediate and massive solution. It becomes a national priority project, with a high political and cultural meaning. It is no more a task restricted to ministries or secretaries of education, but it is a task open to the widest and most committed participation of popular organizations with the support of governmental and non-governmental organizations.

In this perspective, reading and writing are instrumental dimensions to facilitate the search for an historical and cultural identity and to mobilize the human potentialities, their reflexive capacities, and their participative, organizational and productive dimensions, in the economic and social orders.

In the second strategic approach, literacy is a component of a general development strategy which emphasizes its commitment and faith in the perfectibility of the present economic and social system. It is a strategic instrument oriented to reducing social inequalities to the extent permitted by that system.

In this vision, national societies must define and implement some necessary changes in accordance with the existing economic and social system and their models of development. It cannot be expected, therefore, that deep structural changes will take place. Instead we would see qualitative improvements within the definitions assumed by the prevalent global strategy.

Through this approach, literacy becomes a component of the economic and social development plans at macro and micro levels. Some of its main expressions are the following:

- Literacy as an element of support for the professional training of groups in rural and urban areas.
- Literacy as a component of integrated rural development.
- Literacy as a component of the educational projects for the poor population of country and local communities.
- Literacy of indigenous populations, emphasizing the teaching of Spanish.

Most of the governments of Latin American countries have assumed the second strategic approach, though it is necessary to point out the great diversity of views in terms of cultural background and ideological and political perspectives.[22]

Finally, C.P. Espinoza asserted that there is a third position now developing, based on the ideas of Paulo Freire. Here literacy „is an expression of the educational development of popular social classes and has been undertaken... as an independent task and as an alternative to the literacy programmes of the system". There is often free space for independent commitment and action within a wide range of political systems.

Accepting the reality expressed in this last sentence, as the importance of literacy as a development tool in all societies, the Seminar agreed with Bhola's 'advocacy of literacy'.

Illiteracy may not be ignorance, but it is certainly a disadvantage at the present historical moment. There is nothing noble about being illiterate. Illiteracy clearly reinforces (if it does not create) a relationship of inequality between the literate husband and the illiterate wife, the literate money lender and the illiterate borrower, between the literate Brahmin and the illiterate low-caste untouchable, the literate extension worker and the illiterate farmer, between the

22. C.P. Espinoza, ibid.

literate urbanites and the illiterate rural peasants, and between the literate North and the illiterate South.

Literacy does not lead automatically to development. Literacy is not stronger than the structures are. But it is 'potential added' to the individuals made literate. Given congenial political structures surrounding literacy work, literacy promotes meaningful and participative development. Under adverse conditions, literacy may not actualize its potential and may even be abused by making the literate individual more vulnerable to exploitative affiliations. Thus, the relationship between literacy and development is not linear and deterministic, but mediated and dialectical.

Since the relationship between literacy and development is dialectical, this fact must be reflected in our planning of literacy for development. At one level, the dialectical relationship between literacy and the literate must be understood. Literacy adds potential, yet it also makes the individual more vulnerable to exploitative affiliations. At another level, the dialectical relationship between literacy and its social, economic, political and cultural contexts should be understood. Literacy actions must respond appropriately to the surrounding contexts, and must, in turn, influence redefinitions of those contexts.[23]

What emerged most forcibly from all these ideas and examples was that differences of view about the purposes of literacy are closely related to differences in local political or cultural milieux; the same is true for other areas of major debate. To have a mass campaign or not? When is the smaller scale selective-intensive approach most appropriate? What language to use? What is the best methodology and in what circumstances? What areas of work are suitable for international co-operation?

The question of literacy for *empowerment*, which as we have seen emerged most sharply as requiring different definitions in different contexts – especially for all poor and less privileged social groups – is at the centre of these debates. Questions of power, justice and equality are inevitably closely tied to particular political systems and ideologies. If we genuinely want to co-operate for literacy we have to recognise that revolutionary (e.g. Nicaragua), non-revolutionary (e.g. Barbados or Thailand) and highly pluralist (e.g. India) political systems and societies may each in their own way be making valiant efforts to promote their kind of literacy.

Statements like: „development should bring not only prosperity but also a more just social order" and, „if knowledge is inadequate or horizons limited by illiteracy, then people will be exploited by those who are literate" commanded general support in the Seminar. But the divergent views

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23. H.S. Bhola, op.cit.

were not entirely reconciled. On the one hand was the assertion that literacy is „the expression of the problem of power. If we do not make an approach in this perspective we are not going to approach the problems." On the other hand was the view that, „literacy should *not* be about a more equitable distribution of power: it can have a simple economic justification." Both views express different political realities. One conclusion must be that, as another participant put it, „if political power is the goal then the arena for action is political."

What we are here describing is the difference between revolutionary (and post-revolutionary) countries compared with the non-revolutionary. Each in their different ways may make effective efforts to combat illiteracy. However, if we look for widespread international co-operation, literacy work cannot be too firmly associated with any particular political system. As H. Bhola expressed it „literacy work makes sense under conditions both of revolution and reform".

Women and Literacy: Attendance of women in literacy classes is generally higher than attendance of men – a recent development.

IV. Women and Literacy

We have already drawn attention to the correlation between literacy and poverty. Amongst those who have the least the position of women is everywhere seen as of increasing importance. Sixty per cent of the world's illiterates are women; this is simply one of many statistics which highlights the existence of multiple deprivation and massive gender inequalities. Women everywhere are becoming more and more conscious and more and more vocal about these inequalities. In the seminar they were able to give both voice and substance to their case, and there was very general agreement that women everywhere should be a particular priority when planning literacy programmes.

Even where there is a realisation that something needs to be done, there is often over-emphasis on women's traditional roles. As Pat Ellis[24] noted for the Caribbean,[25] in programmes run by NGOs:

> Most projects and programmes in which women at the community level are involved are focused on home economics, child care, food preservation, craft and income-generating projects, the majority of which did not seem to be generating much, if any, income. Only in Jamaica and Grenada are there projects which deviate from this norm and offer welding and woodwork respectively. The majority of programmes too are ad hoc and short term and in most cases lack direction and are without any clear objectives. All of the programmes suffer from the absence of personnel trained in the methods of teaching adults. In the majority of cases too, those involved, teachers as well as participants, did not display a sensitivity to, or an understanding of, the needs, concerns and problems of women; nor of their situation and roles in relation to wider issues of national development.

The state of government sponsored programmes is no better than those offered by NGOs. Data is not readily available on the participation or drop-out rates of women; but it can be assumed that a significant number of women do participate, that some of the Government programmes are beamed specifically at women, and that they reinforce women's traditional roles.

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24. Seminar paper, 'Adult Education and Literacy in the Caribbean: a brief look at recent developments'.

25. Draft Report on a Study of 'Women's Participation in Adult and Non-Formal Education – A Carribean Perspective'. Compiled for ICAE and IDRC by Beryl Carasco, 1981.

At a UNESCO Seminar in June 1983 in a paper presented by the government representative from Barbados, it is stated in the section on 'Historical Development of Adult Education':

> As immigration flourished during the late fifties, several centres opened with the *express purpose* of preparing young women for positions of *domestic (servants)* overseas, especially in Canada. (Emphasis Pat Ellis)

Later in the same paper under the heading 'Present Trends – Definition and Objectives', one of the main objectives identified is:

> to assist females, particularly young women to improve *their home-making skills* as well as to gain employment in the *service industries*. (Emphasis Pat Ellis)

Still later in the paper under 'Strategies and Their Effects' and listed as a priority of adult education in response to perceived needs ...

> the training of young women to improve their skills as *housewives* and *home-makers* (Emphasis Pat Ellis)

And under the section on the main effects which adult education has had ...

> affording many young people many of them women of *the opportunity to participate in cultural activities, not so much for their marketable prospects but more for the aesthetic and cultural experiences* which they provide. (Emphasis Pat Ellis)

However, in the same paper under the same sections identified above there are references to providing opportunities for adults/persons (presumably men)

> ... to learn a technical skill ...
> ... to improve qualifications in order to satisfy job requirements ...
> ... to acquire qualifications for entrance to college and university ...
> ... to provide practical marketable skills ...
> ... to train for supervisory and middle management roles ...
> ... to qualify for jobs as craftsmen, technical and para-professional levels ...[26]

In another paper on 'Adult and Continuing Education in Nevis' presented at the same seminar, under courses being offered to achieve the aims of the adult education programme, the following are listed as a special/separate category (presumably for women only)

> ... home economics, embroidery, cooking, eating habits, baby care, dressmaking and designing ...[27]

The above suggests that 'new' national plans for NFE are being developed without serious consideration being taken of the crucial part that women

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26. 'Update on Adult Education in Barbados', Ministry of Education, 1983.

27. 'Adult and Continuing Education in St. Christopher – Nevis', 1983.

are playing in the social and economic development of Caribbean countries and without recognition and understanding of the changing roles and relationships of women and men in contemporary Caribbean society. Yet these national plans all state that adult education must be seen as a vehicle for meeting some of the needs of people in their societies and as playing an important role in national development. Furthermore they identify some of the needs as:

(a) The reduction of high unemployment rates and the stimulation of the economy to ensure economic expansion. In the Caribbean as elsewhere in the third world, unemployment rates are higher among women than men; yet women are being trained in skills which will continue to keep them placed in the lowest skilled, lowest paid jobs, e.g. service industries.

(b) The provision of competent middle-management personnel – women manage their homes, their families, household budgets every day, yet very few if any attempts are made to build on and transfer their ability and expertise in this area to the formal economic sectors in society.

(c) The development of creative and innovative approaches and strategies to facilitate and promote national development. Yet the programmes which are being developed continue to reflect and reinforce the image of Caribbean women as wives and mothers rather than as heads of households, farmers, managers, technicians, lawyers, or engineers.

If emerging national plans and programmes for NFE are to achieve their stated aims, it is imperative for those responsible in planning, developing, implementing, coordinating and participating in NFE and literacy programmes to be sensitised, to become conscious of the issues relating to the role of women and the important contributions that they do and can make to the development of Caribbean society.

Within the Seminar as a whole, and with support from many countries, there was much support for seeing women's educational programmes as something more than support for traditional female roles. Women, too, have to play a part in new developmental activities.

In her paper on *The Perspective of Women*, Jennifer Riria took up this point.

Whereas many literacy programmes fail to make women better producers in agriculture there are pointers to change in this respect. From Kenya it is reported that, as a result of various women's education projects:

Women are better organised, even at home.

Women are growing crops formerly regarded as exclusively male, e.g. coffee and tea.

Literacy has helped women to be more informed about farming in general.

What the above suggests is that, women who have been from time immemorial crucial in production in any society have been helped to be

better producers by the dissemination of information related to agriculture and home economics.

However, being better producers is not enough. What is suggested from all over the world is that wealth generated by the efforts of women does not benefit them directly. The tradition has been that all cash crops are owned by men farmers; this has to change.

Another crucial issue is that women have to be allowed into the decision making about how the wealth they have generated should be utilised. They should not be mere producers; and it is a great loss for everyone when women, whether trained professionally or by experience are barred from participating. The question of education has been used by the male dominated society to silence women's desire to take an active part in policy matters that affect production. The argument has been that women are not educated enough to manage; if this view is not to prevail, then there must be greater priority for *women's* literacy programmes.

Within the Seminar, it was for women's groups above all that the question of, 'literacy for what?' focussed most clearly on the raising of consciousness. It was agreed for this group that literacy in a general developmental sense is not enough. In the paper by Jennifer Riria (Kenya) the seminar was asked to consider whether literacy has helped women to a clearer understanding of the following questions:

Does literacy help women to realise that they have had to withstand discrimination?

Does it help women to realise that the division of labour often amounts to economic exploitation of female labour even when this is disguised as home life?

Does it make them aware of the prejudices and obstacles which block women's access to education?

Does it make them aware of the inhibitions which hinder them from taking leadership roles in many aspects of daily life?

Of course, there is unlikely to be total agreement that these particular questions, or the way they are expressed, are absolutely right for every society, culture and nation. We are back here to the balance which must exist in every country's policy between adherence to general principles (a move towards equality and greater participation by all) and the particular concerns of individual countries: there can be no universal blue-print.

Nevertheless, there is a tendency amongst women generally to wish to take greater control of their own lives and many see literacy as one vehicle by which this may be achieved. Citing her own research in Kenya, Jennifer Riria noted five basic issues raised with her by rural women:

(a) Basic education, including literacy will help women to advance economically, give them some freedom from absolute submission to received authority, in the family, tribe, and agemates, acquiring a status where they can direct their own lives. With basic literacy skills, they feel confident and can express themselves. This is what Bhola calls „Liberation of the mind from the bondage of dependence".[28]

(b) If the standard of living of women is to be enhanced they must be given basic education. Women will thus be freed from oppression and will be more self-reliant.

(c) This self-reliance must be seen in the context of utilizing human resources at the national level. In a country like Kenya, the right to a good life can never be achieved if the potential of so many of our people remains untapped or underutilized. Utilization of available potential will not only mean a happy home and family but eventually also a healthy nation.

(d) In modern society the aim of enhancing the quality of life will not be realized until and unless the whole society is involved. The society here includes men *and* women. Hence no nation building programmes will succeed unless and until the total population is made to participate fully in development. For women, who have been ignored for so long, to be involved in this process, basic education is essential.

(e) Women do not want to be made to feel that what they do outside the home is supplementary to the work of men. They do not want to be the malfunctioning half of the population. They are therefore questioning the marginalization that they are subjected to by society. Literacy for them should be seen as facilitating the genuine development of women.

And the paper underlines these points by commenting that what „all this means is that women by being exposed to literacy programmes have begun seeking for self expression. They no longer wish to be just passive. They want to be actors on the same level as men in all societies."

Kumad Bansal, from a south Asian perspective,[29] echoed the views expressed from Kenya. She argued that women do not have 'a fair place' in society, but suffer 'arduous economic chores and social discrimination'. There are, however, some differences between Kenya and south Asia, where it is less obvious that women's functional and technological skills have been upgraded. As in Africa „the return from economic activity seldom accrues to women", but „women continue to remain deprived of training for functional and technological improvement, thereby widening the gap between the sexes". Moreover, in south Asia it is not true that

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28. H.S. Bhola, *Campaigning for Literacy*, p.21.

29. Discussion note on the 'South Asian scenario'.

awareness among women is increasing, especially in the rural areas. Kumad Bansal went on to argue that:

Religions in this region relegate women to a secondary position. The weight of tradition and customs inhibits women from gaining equality. The failure of the national governments in strengthening women's productive and economic role has not only accentuated inequality and exploitation, but has eroded employment opportunities for women. Poverty and the social milieu have reduced the lives of women to sheer labour and drudgery. The basic question regarding women's literacy in this region is motivation.

Recapitulation of some of the experiences in this region would perhaps help in an understanding of the motivational, as well as the organisational and pedagogic aspects of women's literacy.

SEWA (registered 1972 Ahmedabad, Gujarat, India)

The Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA), a trade union of poor working women, grew from a subordinate wing of the textile labour association in Ahmedabad and developed into a fully fledged independent union of women workers incorporating members not only from the textile industry, but also from amongst street vendors, bidi (cigarette) workers, 'papad' makers, block printers, basket weavers, milk-maids, textile rag collectors and agricultural workers. The aim of SEWA is economic self-reliance and social upliftment of self-employed women. For economic progress of working women it gives savings and credit facilities, raw materials, equipment and makes marketing arrangements. It helps its members in bargaining and representation in matters related to trade and profession. Its Legal Aid Cells provides legal assistance to its members. As most of the members are illiterate the organisation provides functional literacy, social security and maternity and child welfare inputs. Literacy education becomes, in such a situation, an economic necessity, an indispensable aspect of development of the beneficiaries.

This experience has effectively highlighted that self-employed women find literacy an economic need. Nearly all its 10,000 members know simple arithmetic, reading and writing. Following the success of this experiment, in eight other places in India, similar Self-Employed Women's Associations have been set up.

Integrated Child Development Services Programme (ICDS) and Functional Literacy for Adult Women

ICDS is a Government of India programme which provides early childhood services like supplementary nutrition, immunization, health check-up and referral services for healthier development of children. These services are supplemented by the functional literacy for adult women. The assumption behind linkage of functional literacy of women with ICDS is that education of mothers can be the most significant element in a programme of child development

services and that such educational programme should form an integrated part of the latter. Literacy classes are organized by the child care workers covering subjects relevant to women like child marriage, social discrimination, maternity and child care, family planning, nutrition, health and hygiene. It teaches habits of savings, provides information about cottage industries, poultry, orchard and kitchen garden, etc.

Over 364,000 women have benefited from this programme of functional literacy. The significance of the scheme, which has shown most encouraging results, is the ease with which literacy programmes are dovetailed into other development activities.

Lanka Mahila Samithi (Sri Lanka's Women's Association) (LMS)

LMS is an illustration of a systematic effort in building up programmes and infra-structure at the national, provincial and more local levels for the educational, social and economic development of women in Sri Lanka. The organisation began its work in 1930 and expanded its activities throughout the island. The objective is to help establish Mahila Samities (Women's Associations) in the villages for concerted work among women for their educational, social and economic progress. At the provincial level committees are formed for promoting home craft and mother craft, village industries, co-operative enterprises, social hygiene, agricultural techniques, etc. As a consequence of the awareness provided by the Samities, village women have organised a wide range of activities for their own upliftment. The thrust of this organisation's activities is on the equal participation of women with men in family, village and national development.

Literacy classes have formed an essential part of village Samities; and since literacy was part of a large learning package, in most of which the participants have a keen interest, participation in literacy classes is not a problem. Women see the usefulness of literacy learning.

These programmes have illustrated that women's awareness of the need for literacy grows by linking literacy programmes to vocational training. Also, linkage of literacy with programmes of health and nutritional services of children acts as an effective motivator. Finally the participation of women in development is facilitated by the formation of women's associations – in the shape of trade unions, vocational groups or learning-cum-production-cum-leisure associations.

There is need for women to take initiatives and to exercise leadership in organising women's literacy programmes. Trans-national associations of women for literacy have their own role to play. It is hoped that the International Council for Adult Education may give a corporate identity to its women's programme and appropriately strengthen it for research, dissemination and the advocacy of related objectives.

Gillette and Ryan noted in their paper that four general approaches emerge from an empirical comparison of how the eleven Experimental World Literacy Programme countries dealt, a decade ago, with female participation.

(1) In many cases, literacy was functionalised in economic terms (industrial, agricultural, craft orientation), resulting in the virtual exclusion of female participation;

(2) in other cases, side by side with economically functionalised literacy for men, special courses were opened for women – 'feminised' in the sense that they focussed on home economics, and overall almost as many women as men – if not more – were enrolled;

(3) under a third approach, both women and men had access to economically functionalised literacy – but in sexually separated centres, and with women accounting for less than 20% enrolment;

(4) finally, women and men were offered economically functionalised literacy on an equal footing in joint courses, and in this case female participation far outstripped that of males.*

This evidence leads to the suggestion of two provisional hypotheses to both of which the last case is an exception:

(a) The first is that the more literacy is economically functionalised, the more women tend to be excluded from it – despite the fact that, in agriculture, crafts and some commerce, women often play as productive a role – or more productive role – than men;

(b) the second hypothesis is that the more literacy is open to women, the more it will be 'feminised', i.e. focussed on home economics and allied skills.

Gillette and Ryan conclude their comments with four questions:

To what extent are these four types still characteristic of literacy work today, with the fourth – undifferentiated literacy for women and men in joint classes – still the exception?

To what extent do the above hypotheses correctly interpret these types, if they are still largely valid?

Thirdly, is it reasonable to expect a single educational intervention – e.g. adult literacy work – to go against the grain of predominant mores and traditions in a given society?

And fourthly, if such an expectation is unreasonable, what if anything can be done, through literacy, to hasten the emancipation of women?

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* There is no record of any home economics course being offered to men.

The evidence from this seminar was that literacy for women is an essential part of those social and educational policies which *can* point in the direction of greater equality. But there was no certainty that either social or educational policies have yet moved far enough in that direction.

Nevertheless there was very general agreement on the following:

(I) Literacy for women has to transform their way of seeing the world: few who are illiterate can build personal freedom and a sense of independence. In the Seminar there was a recognition of the dangers of confrontation – of frightening women and of alienating men. Ways must be found of finding justice and equity for both men and women in an overall development context.

(II) Literacy for women can be counter-productive if the content simply reinforces traditional roles (e.g. home economics for women; functional, employment programmes for men) at a time when women themselves are seeking to take on new roles (e.g. of community leadership).

(III) In many countries it is often helpful to begin with women's *organisations*, a fact which has been recognised in the Arab world since 1972.

(IV) Both men and women must realise that literacy and social advancement *will* bring about a change of power relationships between men and women. It will be a matter of individual country judgment as to how much of this kind of change should there be encouraged.

Women carrying the burden of literacy work. Literacy assistants in Botswana (most of them are women) discussing test results.

V. Beyond Literacy: The Need for Continuing Education

It is a weakness of some literacy programmes that they do not go beyond basic reading, writing and numeracy skills; and this has led to increasing demands for effective 'follow-up' or better 'reading materials' or 'post-literacy' activity. However, many of these demands, by the very terminology used, reveal a need for more *internal* co-operation in the struggle for literacy. For literacy does not exist in a vacuum. People become literate – either at school or in adult education – because they want to *do* something; and this something has a content which is bound to affect other basic services besides education.

What we are talking about here is the whole range of educative services such as health and family planning, agricultural extension, post-primary skill training (e.g. in craft skills for self employment), community development and women's groups with educational goals. Such services have their roots in attempts to answer specific development needs, like better hygiene, better husbandry or the generation of self-employment. In the last decade, and in an attempt to bring them closer together, they have often been called 'non-formal education'. In this Report the term 'continuing education' is used in the same sense.

Now, if we see 'literacy' as we have already defined it (to include UPE, adult literacy *and* adult continuing education) and if 'continuing education' embraces all the services noted in the previous paragraph, then the first essential element is co-operation between all these basic services themselves. For this two complementary shifts in attitudes are necessary: (I) adult educators and other literacy workers must accept that they cannot know about all the many topics which motivate the learners and (II) all types of extension worker must accept a responsibility to become skilled communicators and teachers.

There are implications here both for the organisation of basic services and for training. The organisation of basic services cannot be left entirely to different sectors of government; there has to be strong co-ordinating machinery if the 'continuing education' element is to receive sufficient attention. Similarly, the training of extension workers must include a significant adult continuing education component. And literacy workers themselves have to realise that a move beyond literacy has to involve many other sectors and agencies.

Any emphasis given to 'literacy' must inevitably have regard to these issues. For behind this emphasis is the assumption that during these programmes learners do acquire basic educational skills, and that these skills are indispensable for the personal development of the individual, and for the role that an individual can play as a member of the family and in the society. In other words, through basic education people should secure access to much wider opportunities for learning; be better able to take care of themselves and their families; as workers they should be more productive and as citizens they should be able to play a discriminating and constructive role in the environment, in society, and in political life.

Moreover, large enrolments in primary education, high drop-out rates, limited possibilities for transfer to secondary schools and the existence in some areas of low educational standards all re-inforce the call for more remedial and more continuing education. Non-formal educative services of all kinds were never more needed than now.

Nevertheless it is frequently the case that literacy programmes are often planned with little thought as to how new literates will use their recently acquired skills or what changes may happen to their quality of life. As Gillette and Ryan noted:

It is our impression that in case after case, whether micro-projects or mass campaigns, serious literacy planning does not intend beyond the 3 Rs phase. As the evaluators of the Experimental World Literacy Programme pointed out almost a decade ago (EWLP, p.140): „The very term 'follow-up' seems to have lulled several projects into assuming that post-literacy reading materials were of secondary or auxiliary importance only." Similarly, 'post-literacy' sounds like the morning after the party.

True enough, post-literacy can be synonymous with even more headaches than the 'mere' teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic. But that is precisely because post-literacy implies a much more complex, deeper-going and longer-lasting transformation of society than the ephemeral few months of initial teaching required. Books and periodicals must be produced, often in previously non-literate languages, which must in turn be codified and transcribed; libraries and other distribution networks must be mounted and staffed, and follow-up courses – without which the basic tools are quickly forgotten – must be organised and made lively and relevant enough to attract and hold the attention of the often tired, ill-fed adults who in addition to continuing their education have to keep scratching a living out of impoverished land or ungenerous cities. Depending on the situation, post-literacy is a quantum jump toward – or the very creation of – a literate society. As such, it cannot be relegated to a sleepy back office with minimal budget and barebones staff.

Even with a high priority, post-literacy can prove an uphill battle.

Tanzania, for one, has an excellent record in psychological mobilisation, literature production and distribution, library organisation, and continuing courses. A recent review of one of its major post-literacy efforts, the Folk Development Colleges (Moshi, 1983), outlines a good effort gone right – and still only scratching the surface. For the 1,403,985 Tanzanians passing the 1975 adult literacy test, the 52 Folk Development Colleges could only offer about 3,400 places.

It is at the stage of continuing education for the newly literate that the original choice of the language (or languages) of literacy is seen to be all important. As Gillette and Ryan point out:

While one can do literacy work in many ways, one cannot do it without a medium, a language. With the end of the colonial era, the developing world began a passage similar in some ways to that which Europe experienced at the end of the Middle Ages. The old languages no longer sufficed as media of communication. The social, economic and political roles once played by the few had to be made open to the many and while enormous efforts have been made to make the former language of the few the current language of the many, these seemed doomed to failure. Yet, there were then and are now no easy or logical alternatives to these old languages. In the European case, local languages filled the gap while national languages slowly emerged. Usually, usage and not government policies made the choice. In some cases, a Dante gave to one dialect an advantage not possessed by others. Not all of the solutions which emerged were happy ones and in certain cases time has hardened rather than overcome language conflicts.

Literacy in the mother tongue is a rallying cry and idea which is as appealing as it can be impractical. Papua New Guinea – a country of three million people speaking more than 600 different languages – is an extreme but illustrative example of the problem. To seek to teach all citizens in their mother tongues would turn that island into a giant construction site for a new Tower of Babel. Even Tanzania which increasingly we think of as Swahili-speaking had 126 tribal languages at Independence. Circumstances and foresight on the part of its leaders permitted it to choose one language among them as a national language. Nor should it be assumed that everyone wishes to become literate in his or her mother tongue. Indeed, Tanzanians expressed impatience at the efforts of some literacy programmes in the early years to teach literacy in tribal languages as a bridge to literacy in Swahili. They wanted to get immediately to Swahili. This did not indicate a disrespect for their mother tongue but a recognition that its role was oral communication. One speaks to one's neighbour; one does not need to write him a letter. Who can doubt that Tanzania is better prepared for the future with one national language than with 126 of them? It is axiomatic that there is no choice without cost but nation-building, while respectful of the past, must be oriented to the future. If the proposition of Tofler in 'Future Shock' that developments which took centuries

in the past are now being compressed into decades is true, as experience suggests it is, the leaders of the developing world are going to have to fashion appropriate language policies or they will be overtaken by events.

In many parts of the developing world, a resolution of the language issue is a pre-requisite for the success of literacy endeavours. Our proposition in this paper is that the success of literacy depends largely upon the success of post-literacy actions. The demand for reading and not the supply of instruction must lead. Where there is a need and desire to read, a multitude of instructional means and materials will be conjured up to satisfy the need. But post-literacy, in turn, depends upon the emergence of languages of a sufficient scale to create the need for communication and to permit the economic production of the required reading materials. There may be certain exceptions to the above propositions and we do not wish to be dogmatic, but there is a vast cemetery filled with literacy projects which began on the assumption that if people were afforded an opportunity to read they would seize it and subsequently find ways of putting their new skills to work. Some no doubt have done so, but how many among us learned to puzzle out the secret code of airline schedules before rather than after we began to travel. Need is the mother of invention not its son.

The clientele of continuing education consists not only of persons who have completed adult literacy courses, but also youth who have dropped out after acquiring literacy in primary schools and those who have completed primary education but cannot continue to secondary schooling. It is this perspective which makes continuing education critical for harnessing in full the investments made in basic education.

Related problems which require emphasis here are (I) the large number of new literates (whether from school or adult education) who relapse into illiteracy and (II) the lack of motivation for continued learning unless the literates find their new skills are both necessary and useful. A literate environment *and* continuing education opportunities are both prerequisites for sustained success – the creation and development of fully literate societies.

It is the whole environment not simply policy for literacy which determines motivation for learning. In the first place, the individual should feel that he needs to continue learning. Women whose spouses are far away need to improve their literacy in order to cope alone or even to correspond with their spouses. Persons participating in skill training which requires a certain level of literacy feel impelled to attain that level.

Closely related to individual needs is the opportunity to continue learning. Now, for opportunity to be really accessible, mere availability may not be enough – positive steps to secure participation are necessary. For exam-

ple, a village library which contains books and periodicals of interest and is opened at the time when readers can be expected to have leisure, often remains unused by most of the villagers because there is no habit of using it. On the other hand, if the library worker visits homes of the prospective readers and draws their attention to something interesting and is willing to help if the new literate falters, the library service is much more likely to succeed.

Need as well as opportunity can be naturally enhanced if there is the stimulus of social and economic development. This is the third and perhaps the most important point. Learning and literacy cannot grow in a stagnant situation. „The linkage of learning and development gives vitality, a dynamic potentiality, to both."[30]

It has already been noted that the large number of new literates who relapse into illiteracy come both from the primary sector and from adult programmes. At the primary level there are now many countries (e.g. Botswana, Brazil, Colombia, Indonesia, Kenya, Tanzania, Zambia) which have almost reached the stage of UPE. But for the majority there are few opportunities for continuing their education. Moreover, drop-out rates are high and the level of literacy of some school leavers is correspondingly low.

On the basis of a thorough research review, Simmons[31] notes that:

> The level of reading comprehension of both ten-year olds and fourteen-year olds in developing countries was surprisingly low. Significant numbers of even the fourteen-year olds had to be considered semi-literate. They did not approach being able to read and understand national newspapers. This is a very disappointing finding since the majority of students who get any education at all in developing countries do not stay in school past the age of twelve or fourteen.

This finding is corroborated by studies of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). Their findings are that even after seven years of schooling children in several developing countries cannot be expected to be self-reliant for further learning.[32]

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30. Anil Bordia, Paper on 'Co-operating for Post-Literacy'.

31. Simmons, J., *How Effective is Schooling in Promoting Learning? A review of the research*, World Bank, 1975.

32. Referred in Anderson, J. and Kann, U., *The Measurement of Reading Comprehension*, Stockholm University, 1977.

Table 1: Enrolment, drop-out rates and transition rates in selected developing countries (latest year available)

Country	Enrolment in the first level (Total)	Gross Entry Rate (first level, including repeaters)	Drop-out rates[1] (%)	Transition rates from the last grade of primary to first grade of secondary
Botswana	156,664	93	25.2	29.7
Bangladesh	8,219,313	67	81.1	63.2
Brazil	20,566,760	88	72.0	93.6
Burma	3,711,464	84	67.9	61.2
Colombia	4,337,607	124	62.9	96.7
Cuba	1,550,323	122	16.8	90.5
Egypt	4,434,557	75	20.8	72.2
Ethiopia	1,811,251	36	n.a.	78.0
Indonesia	22,024,819	94	22.5	44.3
India	69,749,657	79	58.9	79.9
Iraq	2,609,182	117	6.7	96.4
Jamaica	370,516	98	25.5	104.3
Kenya	3,232,000+	99	47.7	44.9
Mali	293,227	28	39.4	67.3
Nepal	1.012,530	69	n.a.	68.0
Nicaragua	363,781	85	72.2	94.7
Nigeria	9,485,300+	79	n.a.	251.5
Somalia	271,139	50	n.a.	20.0
Sudan	1,427,959	52	25.0	44.2
Tanzania	3,359,966	100	15.9	8.7
Vietnam	7,923,495	122	n.a.	89.9
Venezuela	2,456,203	108	32.4	83.8
Zambia	980,406	98	19.4	18.8
Zimbabwe	883,059	97	n.a.	n.a.

+ Estimate

[1] Drop-out rates have been computed on the basis of proportion of cohorts teaching the final grade of the first level education disregarding both the differences in number and repeaters in different grades in different countries.

Source: UNESCO Office of Statistics

Quoted in Seminar Paper by Anil Bordia, 'Co-operating for Post-Literacy'.

Table 2: Illiteracy rate and literacy programmes in selected developing countries

Country	Projected Illiteracy Rate (1980)	Size of literacy programme in the peak year		
		No. of classes	Enrolment	Peak year
Brazil	24.5	n.a.	1,647,510	1980
Burma	30.3	90,404[1]	397,370	1971
Cuba	n.a.	268,420[1]	707,000	1961
Egypt	45.7	962	28,319	1978
Ethiopia	95.2	35,000	5,400,000	1979
Indonesia	33.1	60,000	600,000[2]	1980
India	59.7	130,000	3,640,000	1978
Jamaica	11.3	10,000	96,928	1973
Nicaragua	33.5	200,000[1]	850,000	1979
Somalia	94.8	25,000[1]	1,500,000	(March 1973 to June 1975)
Tanzania	52.5	140,000[2]	5,819,612	1977

[1] Volunteers

[2] Rounded figures

Source: UNESCO in regard to projections of illiteracy and publications and papers of governments concerned regarding the rest of the data.

Quoted in Seminar Paper by Anil Bordia, 'Co-operating for Post-Literacy'.

With regard to adult education, Anil Bordia notes[33] that there are four aspects of literacy programmes which point to the need for more continuing education:

1. The large numbers now completing basic literacy programmes who have no access to adequate follow-up programmes.
2. The wide range of achievement among those assumed to be newly literate. On the one hand is a country like Tanzania which requires a 'level IV' competency before a person can be considered literate: on the other are several countries where the system of learning evaluation is less obviously consistent.
3. The substantial number of new literates who relapse into illiteracy. In India one estimate gives relapse rates of 35% for males and 51% for females.[34]
4. Basic literacy without further development does not appear immediately *useful* if opportunities to use the new skill are very limited.

What then should be the objectives for continuing education for those who have acquired the basic literacy and numeracy skills? Anil Bordia suggests four main areas of concern:

1. *Remedial* programmes. The growing emphasis on adult literacy programmes as short duration campaigns makes achievement of satisfactory standards difficult. Similarly, the duration and quality of primary education varies widely not only transnationally but also within countries. Therefore, one of the purposes of continuing education has to be to remedy these deficiencies.
2. The *continuing use* of literacy and numeracy skills to ensure their retention, re-inforcement and stabilisation as well as their improvement. This is the central focus of continuing education beyond literacy.
3. *Application* of literacy and other functional skills to living and working situations. Application has to be encouraged by positive measures, for example by the provision of knowledge inputs about agricultural improvement or family planning aids when the importance of their use is being explained. Through this kind of application of literacy people begin to participate in the development process.
4. *Community* development through programmes which promote socialisation and the use of communication skills for individual and

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33. Paper on 'Co-operating for Post-Literacy'.

34. Roy, P. and Kapoor, J M., *The Retention of Literacy*, The Macmillan Co. of India, Delhi, 1975.

group assertion. Such programmes may take the shape of group action for improvement of the environment, of the vitalisation of community forums or popular organisations for securing social justice. Community development is one means by which the individual acquires a new identity.

Whatever the specific programme objectives, the central aim is 'the linkage of learning and development'. There is „a high degree of overlap between the thousand million people described as the 'absolute poor' by the World Bank and about one thousand million people who are illiterate".[35] High infant mortality; one half to two thirds of children undernourished; life expectancy at birth less than fifty years; wide-spread endemic and communicable diseases; one third to one half of the population without access to clean drinking water; household income of half or more of the people below the poverty line or the minimum needed for meeting the essential needs – all these indicators of poverty correlate closely with illiteracy. At the other end of the scale, when three quarters or higher proportions of the population are literate, all these development indicators begin to improve very substantially. However, a word of caution is necessary for, as Manzoor Ahmed points out:[36]

Unfortunately, the high correlation between progress in literacy and primary education and favourable socio-economic indicators does not necessarily indicate cause-and-effect relationship. In other words, we cannot jump to the conclusion that the beneficial phenomena witnessed or desired follow directly and automatically from a rapid increase in the literacy rate and the expansion of primary education. In fact, if the data on the correlation between literacy and various indicators of popular welfare are closely examined, one finds that the positive correlation is weaker in countries as a group in the lower range of the per-capita-income scale than in the group of developing countries at the higher end of the scale. There are also a few examples of very poor countries where the literacy rate has been raised dramatically and rapidly with tremendous efforts and heroic sacrifices by the government and the people in recent years. One is readily reminded of Tanzania, Ethiopia and Nicaragua. While the literacy rate has rapidly improved, significant acceleration in the improvement of other welfare and development indices is yet to come.

How can this be explained? Is there a time-lag between improvement in the literacy rate and the other beneficial consequences? Is there a threshold of literacy rate that has to be reached before the beneficial results manifest

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35. Manzoor Ahmed, 'Integrating Literacy and Post-Literacy Activities and Basic Services'. Paper for the International Literacy Workshop, Madras, India, December 1982.

36. Ibid.

themselves? Perhaps there is some validity in both of these propositions. A more plausible and, in my view, central explanation is that the connection between educational progress and a general improvement in the socio-economic situation of the people is an organic and interactive one.

An Organic Relationship

A historical perspective suggests that when literacy and other aspects of education develop in a country over a period of time, this progress is accompanied by the development of socio-economic institutions, physical infrastructure, technology, communication and the cumulative effects of general economic development. Educational development supports this gradual multi-faceted progress and is in turn nurtured by it. This interactive process, it appears, cannot be bypassed, as far as the beneficial impact on mass welfare is concerned, by attempting to accelerate the spread of literacy in an isolated way that is largely out-of-step with other spheres of development.

I do not mean to advocate a deterministic and rigid formula for the expansion of literacy or to suggest that a specific level of economic development and rate of economic growth is linked with a particular literacy rate. In fact, the acceptance of an interactive and organic model of the connection between progress in literacy and in the living condition of people (rather than a cause-and-effect relationship) means the rejection of a simple linear relationship. I also do not mean to discourage special and determined efforts by countries to reduce the proportions of illiterates in their populations.

It is, however, necessary to emphasize the complexity of the relationship between literacy programmes and their development fall-out as well as the difficulties involved in transforming literacy into tangible changes in lives of people. It is also necessary to clarify what reduction or elimination of mass illiteracy really involves if literacy campaigns are meant to be more than temporary substitutes for hard developmental and political choices.

Mythologies of Literacy Programmes

Some of the very crucial assumptions, expressed or implicit, underlying literacy programmes – particularly those following a campaign approach – are based on myths and a great deal of sentimentalism. Examples of the mythologies are:

- Poverty-stricken people to whom life is a daily struggle for survival generally have the motivation and the determination – or the motivation and the will can be readily created – to put in the hard work and the concentrated and sustained efforts needed to acquire the skills and bring them up to a usable level.
- The circumstances of life of the underprivileged and exploited masses, including their livelihood activities and the possibilities for civic participation that they have, provide the opportunity for them to use their newly-acquired and usually rudimentary literacy skills.

- The technical aspects of literacy programmes including the instructional content, the language questions, the pedagogical techniques, the provisions of primers and post-literacy reading materials, the nature of the instructional personnel and their preparation, the logistics of support and communication and so on have been adequately worked out or can be worked out without much difficulty.
- The ability to read and write is readily translated into the understanding of one's own condition of deprivation and exploitation and this understanding is channelled into actions to change or alleviate this condition.

Anyone who has looked seriously at the history of the spread of adult literacy and of the national literacy campaigns, will readily agree that these assumptions are more the fond hopes of those involved in literacy programmes than the reality.[37] The lesson, however, is not to abandon or to minimise the importance of literacy efforts but to clarify and strengthen the links between literacy and the improvement of the living condition of the people – in other words, the provision of basic services.

The Basic Services Approach

The concept of basic services articulated by UNICEF some six years ago refers to essential public and community services in the areas of health care, education, domestic water supply, nutrition and shelter which together create the condition for people to meet their survival needs and live with human dignity. Provisions for basic services mean altering the dismal statistics cited earlier so that needless deaths and suffering of infants, children and mothers are prevented; so that the life prospects of children are improved along with their chance for survival. They also mean the creation of institutions and organisations, particularly at the local level, so that people can contribute to and participate in the efforts to organise the basic services.

The primary health care system which relies on auxiliary health workers from the communities and puts emphasis on prevention, basic education which combines formal and nonformal arrangements for learning to meet diverse needs for knowledge and skills of people of all ages, and community development programmes which mobilize community support for collective self-help represent approaches to provisions for basic services.

In examining the connections between literacy and basic services, two main considerations need to be kept in view, which are (I) conceptual and organisational and (II) methodological and technical.

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37. For an account of several national literacy programmes in the 20th century, see H.S. Bhola, *Campaigning for Literacy*, (a critical analysis of selected literacy campaigns with a memorandum to decision-makers), UNESCO, Literacy and Adult Education and Rural Development Division, 1982.

Aspects of Functionality

It is necessary to clarify and visualize clearly how literacy can help change the life of the learner. In other words, we have to clarify the meaning of functionality of literacy. At least five facets of functionality are readily discernible:

(I) Acquisition of basic skills of reading and writing so that the written words become a communication tool,

(II) acquisition of basic literacy skills which can be built upon and the learner can continue the process of learning and intellectual development on his own or through formal institutions,

(III) applying literacy skills directly or indirectly in improving one's productive skills and income-earning potential,

(IV) generation of critical awareness of one's situation and the possibilities of changing this situation, and

(V) moving from critical awareness and knowledge to individual and collective action to change one's situation.

If this broad view of functionality is accepted, it is obvious that conventional literacy courses or campaigns concentrate only on one or two facets of the functional purposes of literacy. The full range of functional purposes of literacy can be served only when the literacy activities are made a part of a larger effort designed to introduce and improve basic services and activate a process of self-sustaining social and economic development.

It will of course be a matter for each country to determine for itself the place – and the timing – of a mass literacy programme within the totality of development programmes. Having given very early priority to adult literacy (and later to UPE) within the whole process, Tanzania has more recently given great emphasis to varying forms of continuing education, even before the stage of 'self-sustaining social and economic development' has been achieved.

The Tanzanian structure for adult continuing education – one of the most developed of any less developed country – illustrates two important themes in continuing education: (a) that compared with basic literacy, continuing education is much more complex and, (b) that it is also much more expensive. The main operational instruments of the Tanzanian programme are: rural newspapers, rural libraries, correspondence courses (which have focussed on teacher training for UPE), Folk Development Colleges, instructional radio and an increasing flow of textbooks and other reading material. These are not seen as separate activities but essentially complementary to each other. Z.J. Mpogolo[38] describes two of these activities (rural newspapers and rural libraries) as follows:

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38. Paper on 'Post-Literacy and Continuing Education'.

Rural Newspapers

Experiments on rural newspapers started in 1968 during the UNDP/UNESCO work-oriented adult literacy pilot project in the lake regions. Mimeographed bulletins bearing the names of the project's four divisional areas ('Habari za Busega', 'Habari za Nansiomo' 'Habari za Negezi' and 'Habari za Hangiro') were produced and distributed to the respective divisions in five thousand copies every month.

The Tanzanian government's decision to build further activities on the foundation laid by the functional literacy project was met by the willingness of UNESCO to fund a project for the development of rural newspapers. In January 1974, UNESCO in a joint programme with NORAD, donated funds for a period of three years up to December 1976 to assist the Tanzanian government to launch a zonal rural newspaper for the lake regions; the paper called 'Elimu Haina Mwisho' (Education has no end) was launched in 1974 and 25,000 copies were produced and distributed every month.

Efforts have been made by the Ministry of National Education to see that rural newspapers are established everywhere in the country. Most of the regions and districts have already launched regional and district newspapers, through their district and regional writers' workshops. Besides *Elimu Haina Mwisho*, there are now six other zonal rural newspapers.

All these papers are designed to reach populations not served by the two national newspapers. They are supposed to reach every household in more than 8,000 villages. However, since the extensive rural population is over 90% of the total population of about 17.6 million and since there is a shortage of printing materials, especially newsprint facilities, the target group has been limited to new literates graduating from functional literacy classes only, and even here only to those who have attained stage IV of these classes.

The main difference between the existing Swahili newspapers and the rural newspapers is that the latter's content is tailored to the material needs of the newly literate. All the rural newspapers in the country have the following pattern of content: The front page carries national and sometimes international or local news which is of general interest to its readers. An attempt is always made to interpret the news and relate it to local needs. The second page carries news from regions covered by the newspaper. The news on this page reports on development activities; these reports aim to encourage and stimulate readers to similar undertakings. The third page carries additional news of general interest like letters to the editor, commentaries and announcements. The fourth page is known as a 'Do it Yourself'/'Improve Yourself' page. This carries 'Service articles' on 'how to ...', e.g. 'How to grow better cotton', 'How to make a chair', 'How to make a wheel-barrow', 'How to apply fertilizers', etc.

Readers study, discuss and decide on what can be put into practice. The implementation is done either individualiy or in a group as a class. This page is very much liked not only by the readers for whom it was intended but also by others who know it. Its 'How to' and 'Do it yourself' bits are very popular. They have made the whole newspaper popular.

They use a larger than normal letter size. Whereas the national papers are printed in letter sizes of 8 and 9, the zonal rural newspapers are printed in letter size 12. This gives sufficient legibility for neo-literate readers. Vertical and horizontal layouts mixed together are preferred to other types because they attract the reader and hence constitute a more effective pattern. This increases readibility and provides page variation by giving a balanced design; it is clear and simple and easy to use.

There is a full-time reporter in every district and every region whose responsibilities are to coordinate the collection of news, to edit and to submit them to the zonal headquarters of the newspaper. In addition they have the responsibility of distributing the newspapers using the adult education coordinators. Each zonal headquarters has a basic staff of five, consisting of an editor, a journalist or assistant editor, a technician, a typist/composer and a messenger. These editors and their assistants are mostly former teachers who have attended seminars, workshops or short courses as preparation for their journalistic jobs. Technicians are not teachers but have undergone some training in their technical job particularly in printing techniques.

All the zonal rural newspapers are sold at the nominal price of twenty cents a copy. Once produced they are distributed to the regional headquarters where the regional adult education co-ordinators and the regional reporters distribute the to the districts which in turn send them to the wards and the villages. Apart from being distributed to post-literacy classes they are also distributed to each rural library and to key political and government leaders at the national, regional and district levels. Each zonal headquarters of the newspaper has a landrover and so does each regional and district adult education co-ordinator. Each divisional adult education co-ordinator has a motorcycle and each ward adult education co-ordinator has a bicycle.

Production Costs of Rural Newspapers

To date 'Elimu Haina Mwisho' is produced in 100,000 copies every month while the remaining papers are being produced in 50,000 copies. 'Elimu Haina Mwisho' has its own printing press. At its inception in January 1974 it made use of a neighbouring missionary press. By July 1975 its own press became fully operational. This press was established primarily for the rural newspaper, though by and by it became a general facility for other literacy publications. The equipment includes a Heidelberg printing press, complete offset processing and reproduction equipment. It is served by varityper composing machines, graphic materials, cutting and stapling equipment. There is

a folding machine which has made the attendants' work easier. The sister rural newspapers use facilities of commercial printing presses in their vicinity or use the adult education printing press in Dar es Salaam. Such arrangements have many disadvantages, such as delays, postponements due to owners priorities; lack of opportunity to supervise the work and alter plans. And where distances are considerable, extra expenses are incurred.

It costs about 70 cents to produce a copy of a rural newspaper. Each year the government earmarks funds in the recurrent budget for salaries, production and distribution costs. The whole programme of zonal rural newspapers in Tanzania is partly funded by funds in trust of NORAD through UNESCO.

Rural Libraries

Policy in Tanzania is to set up simple village libraries for the 8,000 or more villages to provide various types of books suitable to adults who have attained literacy through their participation in the national functional literacy campaign. The first few libraries were established in 1969, in the lake zone. The number has gradually increased with time so that presently each ward in the Tanzanian mainland has been provided with a rural library centre. Currently there are 3,167 rural libraries throughout the Tanzanian mainland with about 400 titles for each library. Although emphasis is placed on new literates so that they do not relapse into illiteracy, rural libraries are actually meant for the total rural community with considerable numbers of books suitable for new literates. In other words: the clientele is open. However, the potential number of readers is very large indeed as the national literacy test in August 1981 revealed. There are 3,122,983 adults who are literate through the national functional literacy campaign – or approximately 1,000 neo-literates to each existing library.

In the regions, districts, divisions and wards, libraries are under the supervision of the adult education co-ordinators who have to visit them and to report on them along with the usual quarterly reports which have to be submitted to the Directorate of Adult Education of the Ministry of National Education.

They are staffed with rural librarians who are primary school leavers and most of them functional literacy teachers with an orientation course on library techniques of two weeks' duration plus regular refresher courses of one week in every year. Their duties include library centre organisation, administration, checking the quality and quantity of the materials received and reporting any discrepancies, entering the materials into the acquisition register; serving as discussion group leaders; lending out materials within the surrounding area and circulating them at the centre; record-keeping for the required monthly and quarterly reports on library membership, reader suggestions and inquiries, visits made and visitor/group discussions and their suggestions, and reader counselling.

In each district there is a district librarian who is selected from among the ward or divisional adult education co-ordinators and given a one-week orientation course on library techniques.

Local authorities are being encouraged to erect standardised buildings for housing these rural ward libraries. Presently the libraries are located in a number of places including primary schools, dispensaries, primary courts, co-operative societies, party offices and sometimes in private houses. Ideally the rural library should be equipped with shelves, cupboards, chairs, book-boxes/bags and tables. Some of them lack some of this equipment. The rural librarian is provided with a bicycle and a book box/bag for circulating books to the outlying villages. The library usually opens for four hours a day especially in the afternoon to allow library users to borrow, return or read books, newspapers or use any visual materials. Each rural library receives monthly a free copy of the zonal rural newspaper. An experiment is currently taking place in the Lake Zone by providing pressure lamps so that libraries may be used in the evenings. The librarian is paid a small honorarium of about sixty Tanzanian shillings if he runs the library without an adult literacy class, but with an adult literacy class, he is paid twice as much every month.

In order to strengthen the functioning and utilisation of the library, the rural librarians have been instructed to encourage the formation of a discussion group composed of the library members. The purpose of this discussion group is to discuss the material they have read which could be of interest and practical relevance to their local situations. Perhaps through discussion they are able to arrive at decisions to solve their day-to-day problems.

The rural ward libraries are expected to be stocked with almost 500 titles, two copies per title. But the actual situation at the moment is that each ward library has a minimum of 400 titles, two copies per title. Most of the books are purchased from commercial publishers while the rest are produced by the Ministry of National Education as a result of the efforts made by writers' workshops. All these are distributed free to the libraries. The books purchased from commercial publishers cost, on average, about twenty Tanzanian shillings each.

Each ward library receives a free copy of the zonal rural newspapers. The problem is that there are about 1,000 Swahili titles in Tanzania and even if all these books were bought, they are not suitable for our new literates as they were not written specifically for them. Also not all of them are suited to our national, social, political and economic goals of development. Because of this, some rural libraries do not have a sufficient variety of books and also the books are not replenished adequately. As a result, the existing books have all been read by some of the adults.

In 1975 and in 1976 the Evaluation Unit of the National Literacy Centre showed that in the Lake Zone the majority of the rural libraries are housed

in primary schools. This is a good thing because primary schools are educational centres having the desired literacy environment. However, the adult education authorities need to be vigilant to ensure that the rural libraries are not converted into primary school libraries as has been the practice in certain cases.

The rural librarian seems to be a very busy person. He is supposed to open the library at least twice a week; to form and lead library-discussion groups; to keep records on various aspects of library service; to work on his farm or attend to his primary school teaching, etc. In view of all this the librarian is likely to forget certain aspects of running a rural library as they were imparted to him during training. It is therefore intended to write a guide in the form of a manual containing a summary of what a librarian is supposed to do and how he should do it; this should then be distributed to the librarian as well as the adult education co-ordinators.

The findings reveal that the current stock of books does not meet the needs of the library users both in terms of quantity and quality. In addition to the findings, there is a great demand for development and culture oriented reading materials. The findings, once more, point to the weakness of the supervisory structure. It is apparent that the majority of librarians are running the libraries with little assistance and guidance from the adult education co-ordinator. In some districts the majority of the library members are neo-literates and participants in literacy classes; in others, people who are already having primary education and above form the majority of members.

Financial Resources and Costs of Rural Libraries

During the experimental phase of the work-oriented adult literacy pilot project of 1968/72, and subsequently, a follow-up library project was launched between 1975 and 1977 in the Lake Regions using funds from UNDP through UNESCO, the executing agency. Since then the Ministry of National Education allocates about 1.5 M Shillings every year for rural libraries all over the country. SIDA also provides funds and the aim is to expand the programme to reach more than 7,000 villages in rural Tanzania. The UNDP/UNESCO input during the experimental phase was worth US $ 500,000. However, UNESCO, through funds in trust, is still interested in expanding the project along with the zonal rural newspapers. Discussions are taking place to come to an agreement.

As we have seen, the process of linking basic literacy to non-formal education and through that to the basic services generally has already begun; but there is increasing awareness of the need to think more seriously and more purpusefully about doing so. As David Macharia noted in the Seminar:

Compared to the provision of literacy continuing education is a mammoth task, which has major planning implications. The numbers coming forward

may be much fewer than those attending literacy classes. However, the diversity of needs of those students at the post-literacy level is such that materials on a very wide range of subjects and levels will have to be prepared. This raises an important thought. Even with the greatest of political will, the amount of funds required for this purpose are such that most of the governments in the developing countries can hardly afford it.

In fact, in most countries, especially the developed ones, the individuals themselves have had to choose what they want to learn and have gone ahead and paid for it. How able are we, while still bogged down with the fight against illiteracy itself, and with extremely meagre resources, to seriously plan and implement a meaningful post-literacy and continuing education programme? If we do not or are unable to do so, how do we ensure that the millions of dollars which have been spent on mass literacy do not go down the drain through reversal into illiteracy!

The connections between literacy, continuing education and basic services lie at the heart of an effective development strategy. Moving on from basic literacy is however more problematic and certainly more expensive. Nevertheless it is in just this problematic area that there are also the greatest rewards. There is certainly no simple causative effect from 'literacy' to 'development'. Nevertheless, it is at the stage of continuing education that literacy as *part of* total development may be seen at its most advantageous.

The difficulties, the complexities and some of the rewards of this kind of linkage are illustrated by the Folk Development College programme in Tanzania.

The FDC project was launched in Tanzania in 1975 as a multi-purpose adult education project aimed at maximising educational impact in every district in order to raise the general level of economic activity while at the same time creating a much more co-ordinated and integrated approach to the training requirements of the villages.

Since FDCs are there to provide new knowledge and skills to the Tanzanian people many have started running economic activities which are aimed at reducing their running costs. Such projects include the establishment of canteens, retail shops, vegetable and fruit gardens, animal husbandry and other projects.

... The main aim of the FDC project is to train adults from the villages with the assurance that they will return to their villages after their training. The training they get is not intended to produce people who will go to the towns to look for jobs after their training.[39]

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39. Z.J. Mpogolo, op.cit.

The FDC curriculum includes agriculture, accountancy and technical science as well as leadership and political education. And at this level there are bound to be severe resource constraints. Moreover, the FDCs and other existing programmes alone cannot satisfy the needs of all those primary school leavers seeking further education in whatever form this may be available.

Success in basic literacy inevitably requires firm policy decisions – and support – for adult continuing education. For it is here that the development impact of literacy will be most keenly felt. The aim must be literacy for development rather than literacy for frustration. Several countries have now begun to create the necessary institutions for continuing education beyond literacy. But these still require continued support, continued growth and the sharing both of knowledge and of resources at the international level.

In sum, the lessons of experience to date seem to be: planning for adult continuing education is an essential component in planning for literacy; there must be close co-operation with other sectoral programmes; the resources required are substantial; it is at this stage when basic literacy becomes most cost-effective; aid and development agencies should be as concerned with this area of work as they are with basic literacy programmes.

As will readily be seen from the accounts given above, there are problems to be overcome. To use only the rural library service as an example: the organisation of such a service *and its maintenance* is a much more formidable undertaking than instruction in basic literacy and numeracy through a mass campaign. In the long run it may also be more expensive. Indeed, just as post-primary schooling is always much more expensive per capita than more elementary work, this is also true of adult continuing education. Once again therefore we have to emphasise the need for internal co-operation from all sectors of society. Success in continuing education would, as one Seminar member observed, 'provoke an avalanche of work', while another observed that education beyond literacy 'cannot be a linear process'. The whole of non-formal education must be seen as a part of continuing education.

In spite of both the complexity and the cost of moving 'beyond literacy', much is being done in a number of countries to tackle the issues involved. And there is also growing thought and action at the international level especially through UNESCO and its associated organisations.

What can be done now? Malcolm Adiseshiah discussing problems of cooperation in a working group

VI. What Can Be Done Now?

As we have already noted, 'Co-operating for Literacy' must begin at the national level: in determining priorities, in allocating resources and in deciding on the means by which policy shall be put into practice.

> International co-operation with regard to literacy has a supplementary role and is therefore of the second order of priority in the fight against illiteracy. The first priority is the national will and national decision to reduce and eliminate illiteracy, involving the planning of the literacy campaign, mobilising the needed national and local resources, creating the technical and human resources to sustain the literacy and post-literacy phases and making both phases part of the national educational and development effort. Literacy is thus first and essentially a national imperative, and co-operation from international sources – multi-lateral, bilateral, intergovernmental and non-governmental – has to support and supplement this national effort.[40]

What is really very encouraging is the priority *already* given by many developing countries to the promotion of literacy. Success in Thailand or India, Burma or Nicaragua is success for the whole of the developing South. We need to publicise these successes and also learn from them. Within countries of the South themselves will be found ideas and methods, skills and inspiration which can be adapted by any other country wanting to go down the literacy road. This is one area where regional organisations like the African Adult Education Association, the Caribbean Council for Adult Education, the Arab Literacy and Adult Education Organisation or the Centro Regional de Educación de Adultos y Alfabetización Funcional para América Latina are so vitally important: organisations which often get left out or simply forgotten when bilateral aid agreements are negotiated.

What all this activity means is that the South itself has already acquired and utilised most of the understanding, knowledge and skills necessary to promote successful literacy work. There is certainly still a place for North-South co-operation, but the South-South dimension must now be given increasing emphasis.

Even here it is certainly not a question of transferring successful models from one country to another; as we have seen, national policy set in par-

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40. Malcolm S. Adiseshiah, Paper on 'Co-operation for Literacy Among International/Intergovernmental and Non-Governmental Organizations'.

ticular contexts gives far too much diversity for that. Moreover, it is probably in the more technical aspects of literacy programmes where there is the most scope to apply the lessons of international experience rather than in respect of philosophy, objectives and organisation.

Common methodological questions for which appropriate solutions have to be found in any serious literacy programmes include techniques of teaching the mechanics of the literacy skills, choice of a language in multilingual situations, recruitment and training of personnel and the production of instructional materials. The cumulative body of knowledge in all of these areas should be the starting point for decision-making.

The South's expertise is usually based on good field experience. This expertise may be available next door in the neighbouring country, in the form of personal expertise or interesting innovative approaches. Closer contacts among adult educators in third world countries will enable them to assist each other more effectively in training efforts through the exchange of personnel and materials as well as by inviting participants from neighbouring and especially from smaller countries (who cannot afford major training institutions) to take part in ongoing activities.

UNESCO Regional Offices and/or Regional Associations such as the Asian-South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education, together with the other regional bodies mentioned above, should assume the task of a clearing-house on training; this would collect information on: experienced trainers in the region, planned or ongoing training activities and the training materials available.

It is in the recruitment and training of personnel, and in the production of reading materials where there is probably the most scope for a transfer of techniques and ideas between one country and another. The most important common issues are: re-orientating primary teachers to deal with adult learners, preparing volunteer instructors for their roles and training appropriate to people who will perform the management, planning and evaluation functions. In these areas the work of DSE in multi-national training for instructors, and the related work of IIEP and UNESCO and of UNICEF provided a focus for debate in the Seminar.

On regional co-operation and on the more general issues, Malcolm Adiseshiah writes:

The more general form of co-operation which will assist all the developing countries, particularly the 59 countries who, according to UNESCO, have more than 50 per cent of their population as illiterates, is the programme of documentation, exchanges of information, ideas and techniques which the international organisations ... can and should provide. I have taken the exis-

tence of 50 per cent of the population of a country being illiterate as the cut off point where assistance and co-operation are urgently needed. Because empirical studies show that when a country reaches for its population 50 per cent of literacy, it has crossed the threshold for attaining literacy of its entire population very largely on its own momentum ...[41]

The three international organisations which have the responsibility to provide the intellectual infrastructure in this programme of co-operation for literacy, namely, documentation, seminars and symposia, and publications, are UNESCO, IIEP and ICAE and its regional groups – Asian-South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education (ASPBAE), African Adult Education Association (AAEA), Caribbean Association of Adult Education (CAAE) and Latin American Association of Adult Education (LAAE) ...

The reasons for placing the major and original responsibility on the three organisations are many-sided. First there is the intellectual factor. Primarily and obviously these three agencies are the competent agencies in the field of education and adult education. In the case of UNESCO, apart from its constitutional educational mandate, its expertise in the area of adult literacy goes back to the second session of its general conference in 1947 in Mexico when it decided to launch the Pilot literacy project in Marbial, Haiti, and has over three decades developed an impressive programme of documentation, a network of training centres, work-oriented literacy projects, conferences and seminars and publications including a journal and newsletter ...

ICAE as the specialised adult education organisation and its four regional associations have not only run the only two international professional conferences in adult education, organised seminars and training programmes in Asia, Africa and Latin America, it has also entered the field of helping to develop the overall strategy for adult literacy for the countries concerned. ICAE has set up an international literacy committee which has proposed a global programme of literacy for all by 2000 AD, and which has been endorsed by the Council. Thus the intellectual infrastructure for literacy co-operation belongs to these three agencies and others, who wish to, can help them with funds and personnel ...

These organisations' membership being universal, they are the only means of bringing together the industrialised countries with their resources, educational experience and expertise and the developing countries who face problems of illiteracy in varying degrees, on a footing of equality and understanding. The gap between the two groups of countries is not only in literacy percentages; it can also be seen in terms of financial resources. As against the per capita

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41. A note of reservation by Sylvain Lourié underlines the importance even here of continued effort *after* reaching the 50% threshold: e.g. Honduras attained 52.5% literacy in 1964, but had reached only 57% in 1983.

educational expenditure of $ 291 in North America, of $ 271 in Europe, Africa's per capita educational expenditure is $ 29 (without the Arab countries of Africa it is $ 21), in Asia it is $ 55 (without the Arab countries of Asia it is $52), and in Latin America it is $ 60.[42]

Further, the developing countries face the illiteracy problem at varying levels of intensity. UNESCO reports that in Latin America and the Caribbean with the exception of Haiti (whose illiteracy percentage is 52.9 per cent), the other 44 countries and territories report a literacy percentage well above 50 per cent, ranging from 99.3 per cent in Barbados and 96.1 in Jamaica to 57 per cent in Honduras (which is the lowest). Incidentally this achievement of literacy of Latin America and the Caribbean should be the subject of study in depth. Because apart from Cuba, Nicaragua, Brazil and Mexico which organised and ran and are running literacy campaigns, the other countries did not undertake a massive literacy programme. They of course all participated for over two decades fully in the Regional Literacy Training and Research Centre (CREFAL) in Mexico, but the question that needs study is to what extent their very effective programme for the universalisation of primary education, which started with UNESCO's Major Project for the Extension of Primary Education in Latin America in 1957, has been instrumental in bringing about this relatively satisfactory literacy profile.

In Africa, on the other hand, all the countries with the exception of Lesotho (59 per cent literacy), Libya (50.1 per cent), Mauritius (84.6 per cent), Seychelles (57.7 per cent), Swaziland (55.2 per cent), Tanzania (83.5 per cent), Zaire (57.9 per cent) and Zimbabwe (70.8 per cent), all the other 41 countries face a very serious illiteracy situation, ranging from over 90 per cent illiteracy in the case of nine countries to over 70 per cent in the case of eleven countries, with the rest having an illiteracy percentage above 60 per cent. These are the countries which need the intellectual infrastructural services from the three international agencies and the African Adult Education Association.

In the case of Asia, the two countries who face a massive problem of illiteracy are India with 211.6 million of age +15 illiterates and China with over 200 million adult illiterates. The other countries with large populations of adult illiterates are Pakistan 28.9 million, Indonesia 28.8 million and Bangladesh 27.5 million. In terms of percentage, the largest illiteracy percentages in Asia are faced by Democratic Yemen (72.9 per cent), Iran (75.8 per cent), Nepal (80.8 per cent), Saudi Arabia (83.8 per cent) and Yemen (91.7 per cent).[43]

The intellectual infrastructure support that the three international organisations and ICAE's regional organisations can give to countries must take

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42. UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1981, Table 2.12.

43. Ibid, Table 1.3.

account of their differing achievements – with Latin America having crossed the literacy threshold, Asia facing massive quantitative problems, and Africa a heavy percentage of illiterates. The documentation needs of these three groups of countries are different, as are their planning needs, training modes, and the evaluation of their ongoing programme. The international organisations can assure a judicious mix of these various activities for the three groups of countries. In some cases, it would be countries facing a similar level of illiteracy along with others who have run campaigns and overcome their illiteracy backlogs who could be grouped; in other cases it would be countries which are at the intensive post-literacy stage; in still other cases, it would be a mix of the industrialised countries and some of the 57 countries referred to earlier, with serious illiteracy cohorts, with a view to sensitising the former group of countries about the nature of the literacy efforts that the countries are undertaking and the need to support these efforts either indirectly by getting their countries to increase the flow of their concessional loans and grants to the developing countries, or directly by providing the least developed countries with funds, materials and scholarship for their literacy programmes, or providing the international organisations, particularly IIEP and ICAE and its regional bodies ASPBAE, AAEA, CAAE and LAAE, with funds to intensify their intellectual infrastructural activities in support of the literacy programme of the 57 countries.

The industrialised countries' governments and foundations can thus play an important role in this programme of co-operation in literacy by funding the literacy programmes proposed to be run by IIEP and ICAE, the Asian-South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education and its organs for Region I and II and Region III, the African Adult Education Association, the Latin American and Caribbean Association of Adult Education. This is to some extent the present situation, with Canada (CIDA) providing the major financial base for ICAE, and funding IIEP's French speaking African activities. Some foundations in the United States are also funding ICAE; Sweden (SIDA) has provided voluntary contributions to IIEP for literacy programmes in Africa; the Federal Republic of Germany is a major contributor to IIEP's programme; similarly Great Britain, Belgium, Netherlands, Norway, Denmark, and Ireland are contributing to IIEP's extended programme in Asia and Latin America. Canada and Germany are major contributors to AAEA activities. Canada funds the Caribbean and with Germany Latin American Association activities. Germany also funds some of ASPBAE's literacy seminars and publications. The German Foundation for International Development is active in the literacy field, particularly in Africa, and is a member of ICAE's Literacy Committee.

What is needed is (a) a long-term (10-20 years) financial commitment by the industrialised countries including the socialist countries, so that the agencies responsible for literacy in the developing countries can plan their intellectual infrastructural activities on a rational and continuing basis and consciously aim at attaining their goal of literacy for all their citizens by 2000 AD; (b) all the

industrialised countries – and not only a few, notably Canada, Federal Republic of Germany and Sweden – should participate in this funding of the two international organisations IIEP and ICAE and the regional bodies in their literacy support programmes. This would also be the most effective way of sensitising the people of the industrialised countries to the need and imperative of co-operation for literacy.

Cooperation in Training: Prof. H.S. Bhola in a workshop of the German Foundation for International Development.

1. Co-operation in Training

As we have already noted, it is in the recruitment and training of personnel that there is often the most scope for international co-operation. And here there are many organisations already active – nationally, regionally and at the international level. The programmes which result can be both wide ranging (e.g. the German Foundation for International Development (DSE)) and more specialized. An example of the specialist approach to training is provided by IIEP with its concern for improving local level administration in national programmes.[44] A training network of local participants in five countries of north-east and east Africa has been established. Through sub-regional workshops and participation in national training programmes there is continuing development of training methodologies in this crucial aspect of planning for literacy. A further sub-regional workshop in 1984 will help:

finalise a basic document on training methodologies;
establish systems of local level training;
disseminate results to other regions and sub-regions;
stimulate research in the support of training.

The main thrust of another international organisation (the UNESCO Institute of Education (UIE)) is in research; and this is described below. But it is also active in another specialist sense in training, especially through the dissemination of its own research findings. This also has general importance, not only for itself but in linking the results of research with training. For unless training is informed by recent research, it is likely to fall short of the best which could be on offer. The immediate use of research findings in training is described by Ravindra Dave.[45]

Another element in eliciting co-operation is undoubtedly the immediate use of research findings, again by key personnel working in the field of literacy and post-literacy. The expected outcome was not simply publication but actual use by those for whom the studies were intended. It was part of the design that the studies be usable. The exceedingly good response to the orientation seminars indicates the potential which exists for co-operative efforts at the national, sub-regional, regional and international levels. The experience of the

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44. Gabriel Carron, Background note on 'IIEP Training Project for the Improvement of Local Level Administration in National Literacy Programmes'.

45. Paper on 'A Note on the Asian Orientation Seminar on Post-Literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-Literates in the Perspective of Life-Long Education'.

orientation seminars has also shown that the strong practical bias of the seminars indicated by the emphasis placed on the preparation of guidelines for local level action by the participants making use of the findings from the case studies, from other resource material and from exchanging their own experiences was very much appreciated by them.

The professional co-operation briefly reviewed above was possible on account of financial and organisational support again from various agencies at various levels. From the organisational aspect as well as for the overall design and implementation of the projects, the Division of Literacy, Adult Education and Rural Development, UNESCO, Paris, the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Africa and the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific have made significant contributions. The UNESCO National Commissions of the various countries contributed in great measure by nominating appropriate personnel. The major financial contribution towards the project on the development of learning strategies has been from the Federal Republic of Germany through the German Commission for UNESCO which has borne nearly the whole of the expenditure for the three orientation seminars held and for the second and third series of research studies on the development of learning strategies. The German Foundation for International Development (DSE) provided the financial support for the first series of case studies on the development of learning strategies. The Government of Kenya, and in particular the Department of Adult Education of the Ministry of Culture and Social Services bore the major responsibility for all of the local organisational work of the Pan-African Seminar conducted in Nairobi. Part of the local costs was also borne by the Government of Kenya. Similar support was made available for the Asian Seminar by the Government of India and in particular by the Department of Adult Education in the Ministry of Education, Culture and Social Welfare.

The German Foundation for International Development (DSE) uses a model of co-operation in training which involves assistance to literacy workers by organising both international seminars and national training workshops; in this case in eastern and southern Africa. Working in partnership wiht national and international institutions, there has been a substantial input to the development of training materials. Additionally, a special in-service training approach, called the 'Action Training Model' (ATM) is used.

Participants in these activities have themselves identified the areas where there is a continuing need for co-operation in training. These are as follows:

organisation and planning, especially of large scale programmes;

curriculum development where basic literacy is linked to a functional content in agriculture, health, nutrition and other productive work;

production of reading materials, including newspapers, pamphlets and books designed to foster a literate environment;

production of distance teaching materials, especially for in-service teacher training;

innovative communication methods like rural radio; and

evaluation and monitoring of existing literacy programmes.

It is suggested that the priority group for this type of training should be middle level workers like administrators, trainers of trainers and programme specialists involved in day-to-day planning, organisation, materials production and so on. In general 'middle level' personnel will exert a multiplier effect as well as being practitioners. In this way international co-operation in training will reach to every level in a programme.

In his paper on 'Co-operation in Training', Josef Müller considers the various training needs in: degree level courses, short in-service programmes and the Action Training Model.

For *degree level courses* he writes that:

To get a solid theoretical basis for a wide variety of activities, and the necessary paper qualification for a professional career, *degree courses* are needed. Certificate courses, diploma courses, and academic studies leading to a Bachelor, Master or a Doctorate continue to be, expectedly, in great demand. However, approaches to satisfy this demand are changing. Academic training at American or European universities may be of limited use – except for career purposes – if these universities offer not much more than the traditional descriptive approach towards history, psychology and philosophy of adult education and are not specialised in problems of third world countries, with a strong bias on skill training, e.g. in curriculum development, instructional materials production, training design, field research and evaluation techniques.

German Institutions such as the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD), the German Adult Education Association (DVV) and the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) are extremely hesitant to provide scholarships for academic studies in the field of adult education at German universities, as we are of the opinion that these studies – not only due to language difficulties – can be better done at universities in third world countries with their closer links to the realities of the developing world. Providing scholarships for studies at third world institutions can also be regarded as part of an institution building policy.

Given the scarcity of well-trained manpower in the third world, absence from the place of work for a longer period is becoming more and more difficult. When an officer is away on training for a long period of time, the programme suffers. University institutions, therefore, are beginning to offer distance-cum-

residential courses leading to academic degrees, from a Certificate up to an MA. Long absence from the place of work, except for some weeks for the residential or block phases, is not needed. Academic work, especially written dissertations, are more closely linked to practical tasks the student is confronted with in his daily work. Co-operation among universities, e.g. in southern Africa countries, is possible and intended. Thus, the Institute of Adult Education, University of Zimbabwe, would accept students, for their combined courses from other African countries, if they meet the entry prerequisites, and if places at the Institute are available. Scholarships by donors could facilitate this type of co-operation among African university institutions.

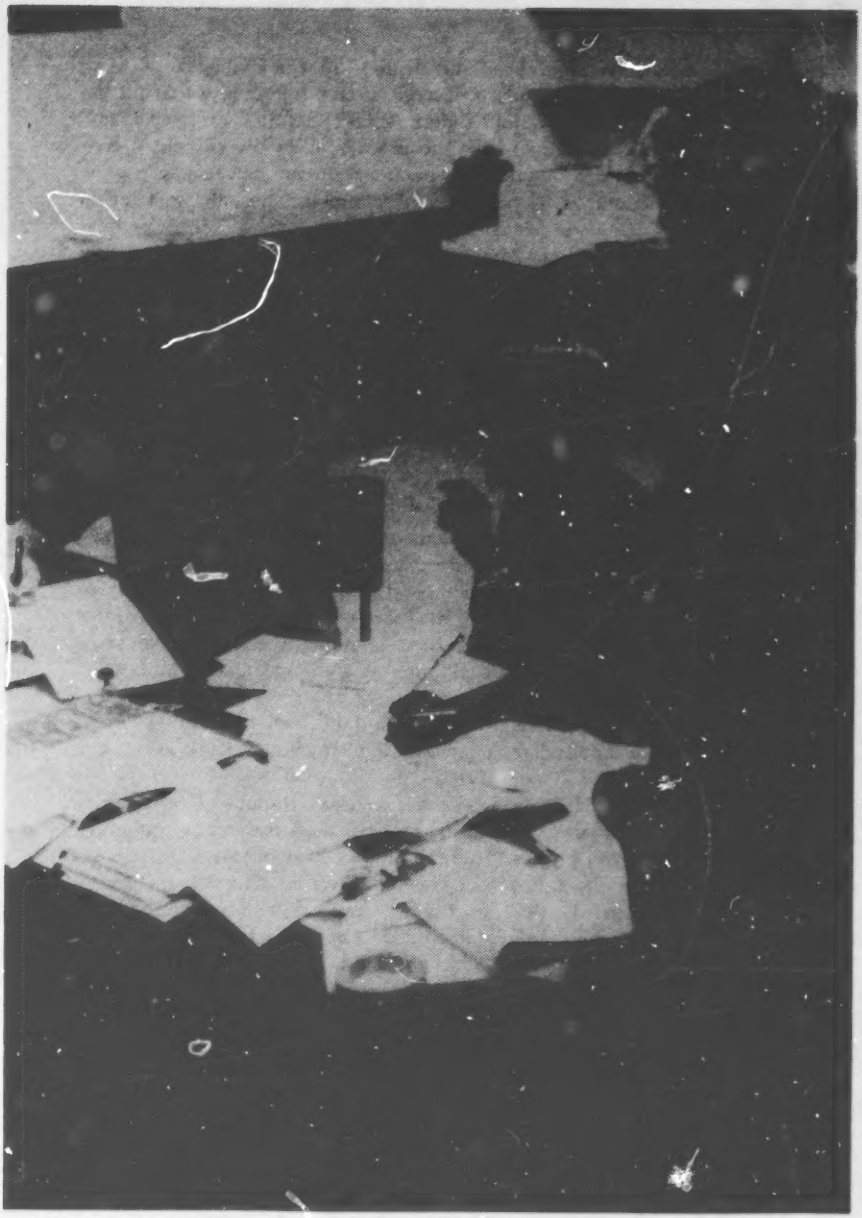
While there is no doubt that degree level training in industrialised countries may be useful in certain circumstances, it seems desirable to concentrate more and more either on courses within developing countries or on co-operative training between them.

On *Short-Term In-Service Training*, Josef Müller writes:

In view of the ever-growing requirements on trained staff, in-service training becomes more and more important. Tailor-made training and orientation courses of about two weeks duration, and addressed to a closely defined target group, e.g. higher and middle level staff at central, regional, or district level, are able to bring a major group of co-operating specialists to the same level of information on recent developments; and can make them familiar with new techniques in a short period of time, at rather low costs. Participation of higher level decision makers, for example, of the 'National Commissioner', in these courses will considerably facilitate implementation later on.

Quite frequently these short-term in-service courses are supplemented by correspondence or are part of a combined programme consisting of residential-cum-distance teaching phases. Thus, distance education plays an ever increasing role, especially in in-service training. Even basic knowledge can be obtained by distance education, as it is the case, e.g. with the 'Foundations Course in Adult Education' offered to adult education teachers by the Institute of Adult Studies, University of Nairobi and the Department of Adult Education, Ministry of Culture and Social Services, Nairobi, Kenya.

The Action Training Model developed by the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) together with colleagues from the Institute of Adult Studies (now College for Adult and Distance Education) maintains the main virtue of the more usual operational seminar, namely, the link between reflection in a group setting and practical field work. However, there is a follow-up after the first seminar or workshop which makes use of the subsequent practical applications of any new knowledge or skills. Josef Müller describes the ATM as follows:



Short-term in-service training becomes more and more important. Lars Mählck (IIEP) with a working group of the Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre in a workshop on Evaluation of Literacy Programmes.

The Action Training Model (ATM)[46] which I would like to present is an in-service training model. It is so called because it demands action from trainees in the application of skills learned during training, in their own work on return to their institutions. The model emerged from participatively planned national evaluation workshops, first in Tanzania, then in Kenya, dealing with evaluation concepts and techniques, which the local participants considered important, at that particular stage of the implementation of their national literacy programme. The workshops sought to train middle-level literacy workers who could themselves do most of the implementation of literacy evaluation as part of their day-to-day work. The workshops were built around plenary sessions, group work and individual tutoring.

Field visits to villages were *not* included in the programme, because it was considered unnecessary to take rural development workers who spend practically all their working lives in the rural milieu, back to visit villages to experience field realities. The workshops were indeed 'invented' in the local setting together with participants, focussing on their immediate professional needs. Carefully written instructional materials facilitated the task. Handbooks put things into perspective, while information given during a workshop concentrated on specific problems.

Participants were thus able to understand the part/whole relationship between their immediate professional needs and the overall subject matter. They knew from the written materials what a comprehensive elaboration of a subject or topic would be and how their own specific sharply defined needs related to the larger picture.

An important feature of the participative model was participation at faculty level as well. It was our intention to base the teaching process on the experiences of local faculty members, with whom we collaborated from the very beginning; and to promote their professional development as well. Based on an inbuilt evaluation process the model emerged from this collaboration between participants, local faculty members, a programme officer of the German Foundation, and Prof. H.S. Bhola of Indiana University, USA. No further outside expertise was used. The workshops were steered by participants through the mechanisms of a steering committee. Thus, we conducted workshops on evaluation, curriculum development, production of reading materials, and programme development in the post-literacy stages in Tanzania, Kenya and Zambia.

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46 For more details see H.S. Bhola, Action Training Model (ATM) – An Innovative Approach to Training of Literacy Workers (Literacy ≠ 6) Child, Family, Community/ Notes, Comments, N.S. 128, Unit for Co-operation with UNICEF & WFP, UNESCO, Paris, March 1983.

The participative model was good as far as it went. We were not sure, however, of what happened after the participants left for their homes. Therefore, to participation was added the commitment to action. In the Kenyan evaluation workshops since 1979 actual development of evaluation proposals dealing with some aspects of the trainee's own work was made an essential part of the curriculum.

After having developed the proposal during a first workshop, participants went back to their workplaces – doing fieldwork at their own place of work – to implement the proposal by actually evaluating certain aspects of their own programmes, and to collect the necessary data. After about six months participants were supposed to return for a 'mid-term panel', with their data collections, to get the necessary information on data organisation and analysis as well as on writing of evaluation reports. After the mid-term panel, they went back again and were expected to write their reports and to present them during a follow-up workshop. These workshops were now organised as 'sandwiches' – a workshop was followed by a mid-term panel which was, again, followed by another workshop. In the meantime, participants worked on their proposals assisted by Kenyan faculty resources who formed what we called an 'Educational Evaluation Resources Committee' to provide technical assistance to participants in the conduct of their evaluation studies during their enrolment in the workshop series. Participants were given opportunity to enrol for two annual cycles, each one consisting of a workshop and a mid-term panel, and to implement two evaluation proposals.

However, the Action Training Model does not end after two weeks of good living and talking. Long-term commitment over a period of one or two years is demanded from participants, a commitment without incentives other than those of wanting to do a good job of whatever one is doing in one's working life. Without institutional support, howsoever limited, without at least moral support and understanding from superiors and colleagues this long-term commitment to actually implement an evaluation proposal and write a solid report seems to be too demanding.

As a consequence, we had considerable difficulties with the rate of return from participants. The rate for completion of evaluation studies, as demonstrated by written reports of studies, was on average between thirty and forty percent. We had considerable discussions, whether we should call this a success. However, one important criterion of success was that from July 1982 onwards the Kenyans took over, only financially assisted by the German Foundation. This financial assistance will continue until 1986. The Institute of Adult Studies will use this period as a transitional one to make the programme a full responsibility of the Institute of Adult Studies, financed by the University of Nairobi and a regular academic component of the Institute's regular programmes leading to an award of an appropriate certificate.

Based on the Kenyan experiences a similar approach has been used in a series of three sub-regional workshops held in *Botswana*. Three teams from Botswana, Malawi and Lesotho, in November 1982, started working on the elaboration of monitoring and evaluation systems respectively for the National Literacy Programme in Botswana, the Functional Literacy Pilot Programme in Malawi, and the Learning Post Project in Lesotho. The first two workshops, in November 1982 and March 1983, were more of a training character, making participants familiar with basic evaluation techniques and assisting them in elaborating pilot evaluation studies on crucial aspects of their programmes. After two workshops, the Lesotho team was able to continue on its own in evaluating the Learning Post Project which is smaller in coverage than the Malawi Functional Literacy Pilot Programme and the Botswana National Literacy Programme.

The Malawi and Botswana teams returned for a third workshop in May 1983 to elaborate the necessary instruments for monitoring their programmes on a continuous basis (i.e. to design Management Information Systems) and for a mid-term evaluation of the Botswana National Literacy Programme. In the meantime, evaluation instruments are ready for pretesting (June 1983) and for use from August/September 1983 onwards. Participants in this series of subregional workshops were fully backed by their respective institutions who had a high interest in enabling their staff members to monitor the progress of programmes they are responsible for. Consequently, the problem of the rate of returns did not occur.

All participants returned to the following workshops except those who had left their institutions in the meantime because of transfer or resignation. The quality of their 'homework' compared very well with the work done in the earlier Kenya workshops. This means, the model requires personal as well as institutional commitment and is most suitable for in-house-training, i.e. training programmes of staff members of one major institution which fully backs the training approach and is highly interested in its results.

The establishment of regional clearinghouses and direct contacts among experts and institutions would facilitate considerably the flow of information, strengthen co-operation, and contribute to the economic use of scarce resources. Much useful information which does exist remains known to very few people. Though the writing of reports is a habit in all bureaucracies, these reports rather frequently disappear in files. In its Draft Medium Term Plan 1984-1989 (4XC/4) and in its Draft Programme and Budget for 1984-1985 (22 C 5), UNESCO invites organisations, institutions, foundations, etc. to co-operate in training, especially in the field of literacy. To this end we need more efficient dissemination of experience.

While international organisations or foundations may have, with good reasons, their own training policies and plans, assistance to third world

countries in organising *their* own training activities on a regional or national basis, becomes more and more important. This means the institution of genuine co-operative training programmes with and through local professionals themselves. Specialists who are sent to help should be persons who are grounded in knowledge and experienced in a special area. Moreover they should be willing to fill gaps in local efforts. Such gap filling can be extremely helpful, and can make better use of available personal and material resources than ambitious 'own' programmes run from a European or North American capital or university campus.

2. Co-operation in Research

We have already asserted the need to associate research very closely with training. There are two reasons for this:

(a) to ensure the research results are immediately useful, rather than simply ensuring academic credit on the publication of obscure articles by practitioners; and

(b) to provide trainers and training institutions with the latest and best information available from whatever source.

Without international co-operation, the research/training continuum would be greatly impoverished. If co-operation persists and is strengthened then literacy workers at every level will be given the confidence to act with both wisdom and vigour. Probably the best way of achieving this is if they, together with the learners, participate in the creation of knowledge. Participatory and action research are likely to be important parts of any research programme. The Participatory Research Network established by ICAE is a significant international resource in this area of work.

Problems of overseas training at the degree level are likely to be better understood on the completion of a study now under way at the University of Southampton (UK). Working in Ghana, Kenya, Sierra Leone, Tanzania and Great Britain an international team from these five countries is evaluating degree level programmes for adult educators in a number of UK universities and in the African countries involved. A first interpretation about benefits suggests that:

> While there is no doubting the benefit of overseas studies to the individual for whom the qualification is so marketable ... some people have challenged the wisdom of sending an adult educator to a university, to a highly industrialised society, in order to become more effective within a service which is aimed mainly at the rural poor. For those who see the key problem of adult education in developing countries as one of enhancing cross-

cultural communication *within* the society, the 'advanced level training' done 'overseas' is potentially an alienating and a de-skilling experience.[47]

A feature of this particular research programme is that it involves both North-South and South-South co-operation, with researchers from one 'North' and from four 'South' countries evaluating programmes in a 'cross-over' model from North to South and South to North.

The research work of UIE has focussed on adult continuing education, or 'post-literacy' as it is sometimes called in this context. The Institute has initiated a series of case studies designed to reflect concrete experience in several selected countries. These studies focus in particular on adult new literates and have been used during 1981—83 in a series of regional orientation seminars. As reported by Ravindra Dave, Daya Perera and Adama Ouane:[48]

A design for conducting the case studies was prepared during an international planning meeting held in October 1982. The design calls from each participating country for an elaboration of the following components against the background of the overall scheme of evaluation for literacy and post-literacy programmes in the country concerned:

Learner Evaluation

The broader aims and functions of learner evaluation are to be described along with instructional objectives and learning areas.

Curriculum Evaluation

The items to be described under this category are the aims of curriculum evaluation, the areas covered, techniques used, who does the evaluation and management aspects. As with learner evaluation another important item is the *use* made of curriculum evaluation.

Programme Monitoring

„Monitoring is a process of *watching periodically* the *progress* of a project or programme in order to identify strengths as well as *shortfalls*, if any, for the purpose of taking *timely corrective measures* with a view to optimising the

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47. John Fox and Joseph Mutangira. Paper describing a research project on 'The Overseas Training of Adult Educators: an evaluation of programmes in Africa and the UK'

48. Paper on 'An Overview of UIE's Projects on Literacy and Post-Literacy Exemplifying International Co-operation'.

effectiveness and efficiency of the project or programme."[49] In accordance with this definition the aspects being monitored, procedures and instruments used, who does the monitoring, management aspects and use of the results are to be described.

Impact Evaluation

'Impact' is regarded as the larger effects of the literacy, post-literacy and continuing education programmes (outside of the education system itself) resulting in the personal, social and vocational development of individuals and their collectives. invariably these changes are not likely to be due solely to the educational programmes concerned.

Dissemination of Findings

It was expected that the case studies would constitute the major resource material for a series of orientation seminars similar to those designed for the development of learning strategies.

In an accompanying paper[50] Ravindra Dave notes that the strategies were studied in terms of their scope, limitations, content coverage, motivation and involvement of participants, evaluation, training of technical personnel, etc. including the following:

Newspapers, wall papers and magazines for neo-literates
Textual materials prepared for post-literacy studies
Supplementary reading materials
Libraries for new readers, mobile museums and exhibitions
Extension literature produced by development agencies such as health department, agricultural extension services, etc.
Out-of-school and award-bearing programmes parallel to the school system, and other non-formal courses of vocational and general character
Occasional programmes based on special needs and interest
Correspondence courses
Local study and action groups
Radio, TV films, etc. (New Media)
Traditional and folk media
Sports, games, physical culture

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49. Dave, R.H., *Designing a System of Evaluation and Monitoring for Literacy and Post-Literacy Programmes*. Paper presented at International Literacy Workshop on the Planning and Implementing of Literacy and Post-Literacy Strategies, Madras, 14-21 December, 1982. IIEP/S72/14.

50. Paper on 'A Note on the Asian Orientation Seminar ...', op.cit.

The countries which participated in this research project were as follows: Bangladesh, Brazil, Cuba, India, Kenya, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Tanzania, United Kingdom, Upper Volta, Venezuela. The research also included three related studies having regional and international perspectives.

The thirteen country case studies and the three cross-national studies in addition to other resource material – particularly the work done by UNESCO – were the learning and the reference materials used for an international orientation seminar and a regional (African) one in which over 80 key personnel from nearly 50 developing countries participated including the researchers who carried out the case studies. Preliminary drafts of the case studies were sent to the orientation seminar participants well in advance for their study. During the orientation seminar itself the researchers played the dual roles of being both participants and resource persons. The orientation seminar participants for their part, not only benefited from the case studies but also offered suggestions for improving them. In addition, there was a mutual sharing of experiences. The seminar for the Asian region was essentially of the same design. Additional case studies were undertaken in the People's Republic of China, Indonesia, Nepal, Thailand and Viet Nam.

The programme of research and dissemination carried out during the last three years involving many countries from all regions of the world would not have been possible but for the co-operation extended by various agencies and institutes both national and international in a multiplicity of ways. The recognition of the significance of the field of activity and the identification of the problems needing urgent attention have been due to the efforts of international agencies mainly UNESCO and its associated institutes. The work of such agencies as the German Foundation for International Development indicated the possibility of working together with the countries mostly affected to seek possible solutions.

The research designs have been the result of close collaboration between national level scholars, coming from very varied backgrounds and having differing perceptions, working together under the aegis of an international research institute like UIE and making use not only of its physical facilities but more importantly of the research work accomplished by it in the field of lifelong education. The genuine participation of key personnel working in the field of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education in the design of the research which they themselves were to carry out, has led to a clearer definition of the nature and magnitude of the problems involved. But from the point of view of international co-operation it has had an even greater impact in the sense of a keenly felt and openly expressed desire to learn from each others' experience. The flexibility inherent in the design made it possible for the participants to offer their maximum support to accomplish something which they felt was not only important but also feasible with the resources they could command in their own countries. In practically all of the countries concerned it is evident

that apart from the designated researcher several other colleagues would have actively participated in completing the study. Apart from the significance and relevance of the problem area, their participation in the development of the design and feasibility of conducting the studies appear to be critical elements in eliciting co-operation at the national and international levels.

3. Regional Co-operation in Training and Research

Training and research are just the areas where regional co-operation could be most useful. And yet regional organisations often have no funds for things like sending the local trained expert to a neighbouring country. International agencies are often criticised for being insensitive to local needs. Indeed, any co-operative work has to be based on individual country requirements. A regional organisation, with close contact with its 'constituents' has more chance of being sufficiently sensitive than a more remote body.

The African Adult Education Association[51] founded in 1968, was

the result of the recognition of its founders of the fact that, although the promotion of literacy was primarily a national responsibility in Africa, there was the paramount need for regional co-operation at all levels of personnel and in all forms, in order to facilitate and sustain its programmes. The Association established its Secretariat in 1977, as a modest and flexible structure, to execute those activities and programmes which would facilitate regional co-operation.

The Association's activities and programmes have been in five main areas:

Short training workshops and seminars for middle-level practitioners and trainers, based on their practical experience; they are designed to improve knowledge, practice, and effectiveness in innovation areas or in those where resources, expertise and demand cannot be found in one single country.

The creation of a forum and networks for the cross-fertilisation and exchange of information, ideas, trends, experiences and practices.

Research and publication (books, journals, pamphlets).

The creation of a documentation centre and clearing-house for the dissemination of information.

Advocacy for the promotion of adult education through the formation of national associations in African countries.

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51. Now (1984) merged with Afrolit to form the African Association for Literacy and Adult Education. Paper by E.A. Ulzen.

The Association shares the conviction that international co-operation is needed for supporting universal adult literacy at the governmental, non-governmental, inter-governmental, bilateral and multinational levels. The Association, in its short span of existence has been able to gain the recognition and acceptance of sub-Saharan African Governments, as evidenced by the recommendation of the Conference of African Ministries of Education and those responsible for economic planning organised by UNESCO in Harare, Zimbabwe, July 1982, urging African countries to use the expertise of the Association and of the Afrolit Society in the planning and implementation of their literacy and other adult education programmes.

The Association has been able to bring together experts, professionals and practitioners from countries with political and ideological differences in several sub-regional and regional workshops, where no single country would be able to, and it has been allowed to promote activities leading to the formation of national associations with the utmost co-operation from all concerned.

Cooperation in Literacy means firs. and foremost
'South – South cooperation'

VII. The Meaning of Co-operation

1. Principles and Problems

Throughout this Report there have emerged a number of themes related to co-operation: the primacy of national will and purpose; internal co-operation between different basic services; the need for South-South as well as North-South co-operation, and the recognition of common interests in literacy which extend beyond ideological or political differences.

The latter point is certainly worth emphasising again. The Seminar placed much weight on an increasingly important role for regional organisations – as clearing-houses for information, as resource centres, as organisers of training, as facilitators for the exchange of personnel and as catalysts in creating a climate of urgency for literacy. National will and national purposes are bound to vary enormously. What must not be forgotten is a common determination to succeed in the struggle for literacy as part of the struggle for development and change. At the heart of this struggle lies a belief in improving the quality of life for all mankind.

In its discussions on co-operation the Seminar accepted the following principles:

international efforts should supplement national efforts

a commitment to literacy must be made without imposing external conditions

'assistance' should be on the basis of equal partnership.

As one discussion group expressed it:

„Assistance should not be a disabling mechanism, but should lead to local person-power, expertise and self-reliance."

Now of course this last comment recognises that assistance can be a disabling mechanism; and it is vitally important to face up to this danger. As a participant from Zimbabwe forcefully expressed it, disablement happens if the partnership is one of 'horse and rider'; this would be a 'mischievous partnership' and one which would tend to stifle local initiative and commitment as well as national sovereignty.

A similar comment came from Botswana. There the adult literacy programme is supported by four external agencies, each with different reporting systems and reflecting different policy priorities determined within four different governments. The progression from 'development assistance' in the 1960s to 'development co-operation' through 'dialogue' is in practice very difficult. It was necessary to ask the question: „has the recession led

us to revert to 'assistance?" Related to these views from the South was a Canadian plea for tolerance. Development agencies also had to create a 'climate of urgency' within their own countries. Unemployment and inflation in the industrialised world made it much more difficult to convince their own populations of the importance of this kind of co-operation. Development education at home is an essential component of external co-operation. Moreover, even when the primacy of national will and purpose was accepted, there was often a shortage of 'good ready-made projects' with which the external agencies could co-operate.

In this delicate area of international relations and international understanding, five problem areas were identified: project identification and formulation, co-operation amongst NGOs, the selection and use of consultants, evaluation and monitoring, conflicting reporting systems.

In project identification and formulation, there continued to be a tendency to impose external principles, objectives and conditions. While projects must arise as a result of co-operative effort, the ultimate decision on aims and strategy should rest with the initiating country. „Literacy is a thread which has to be wound on many cores." And these development cores – in the economy or in basic services – lie at the heart of each country's independent political programme. These programmes should not be distorted by external influence on policy formation. Nevertheless, unless developing countries themselves are clear about priorities and programmes, the ideal of 'dialogue' put forward is unlikely to be realised.

The question of co-ordinating the work of NGOs was raised by a number of speakers. In the Caribbean, for example, there are six NGOs concerned in some way with adult education. And it is a fairly recent phenomenon that agencies without a central remit for adult education have now moved into this field; e.g. women's organisations, trade unions and the media. Additionally, an active NGO may by-pass government co-ordinating machinery, both in dealing with local operational units and when talking to international development agencies.

Such entrepreneurship may bring rapid short-term benefits, but it can also create problems. Programmes may compete wastefully; there may be little integration with overall development planning; even 'success' may be accompanied by an inability to duplicate or expand the programme on a wider scale. Aid in this situation may be disabling simply because it inhibits the creation of strong indigenous institutions through the isolation of small technical assistance programmes however well conceived in themselves. It was suggested that NGOs – and their external contacts – must be sensitive to these implications.

The selection and use of consultants gave rise to much comment. In particular, participants were concerned about the following issues:

The demand by foreign agencies that consultants must be of a certain national origin.

Selection of consultants without prior consultation with the 'receiving' country.

Terms of contract which regard the consultant as an employee of the external agency alone.

Procedures which prohibit or inhibit the sharing of the consultant's report with programme staff.

Resistance – by third world as well as industrialised countries – to the use of consultants from developing countries.

The Seminar agreed that such practices should be reconsidered. Consultants (in the case of bilateral arrangements) should be regarded as being employed jointly by both parties and this should also apply to terms of reference and to selection. If regional organisations were further strengthened, this would facilitate the recruitment and use of consultants from neighbouring and other developing countries. Finally, the consultant's report should be fully shared and discussed with both policy and programme staff, preferably prior to formal submission. It was noted that this practice is already being adopted by U.N. agencies.

Monitoring and evaluation are perhaps the most sensitive areas of all. Any development agency must certainly be satisfied that its money is well spent in terms of agreed priorities; and it will therefore need to assess outcomes, gather information on weaknesses and strengths and make judgments about the effectiveness of its involvement. At the same time this process should certainly not involve direct project supervision or control.

The reporting requirements of different agencies were referred to on a number of occasions. Reporting and monitoring there must be; and in the interests of all. But there was a need to try to overcome present confusion and waste of effort. Could there not be a simplified and unified reporting system agreed for all development agencies, whether national or international? It was suggested that such a system is already in existence for UN/UNDP agencies and is used by others in receipt of UN grants. The possibility of its adaptation and use by others should be explored.

Co-operation at any level requires mutual respect and mutual understanding. Largely because of adverse economic trends there is now a crisis in co-operation for development and a lack of congruence in policy objectives. And although this was a Seminar about literacy, if that priority is set

in the more general context – as we have tried to do – then the conclusions about co-operation have much more general validity and application.

When there is a shrinkage of resources for aid, it is often the basic social services which are the first to suffer. We have already expressed our belief that this may well be a mistaken approach, even when strictly economic or financial criteria are applied. The 'magic moment' for development is often the same as that for literacy. Literacy does not cause development but it does enable the learner to take a more active role.

In considering overall strategy for aid to literacy, Gillette and Ryan point out that

the progress of literacy depends upon more than the scale and success of literacy work. Individuals have found a wide variety of ways of learning to read and write when they have perceived that the changes in society made it useful and beneficial for them to do so. Hence, the foreign donor can 'do literacy' in a variety of ways: not only by directly aiding literacy projects but also by promoting the general development of a country which, if successful, will serve to induce literacy by providing a need and motivation for it.

Not all development projects are necessarily equal in this regard. The most effective projects are those which provide the most direct incentives to illiterates. Agricultural price support programmes, for example, have the potential of providing thousands or millions of small farmers with significant economic incentives, if the system of land tenure is such that the benefits of increased productivity accrue to the farmer and not to the landlord.

The initial reaction to such incentives will not be to seek literacy. The farmer will seek to do more of what he is already doing or endeavour to do the same thing better. But, at some point, the need for new technology arises and, with it, the need for new skills to manage that technology. The use of fertilizer, for example, directly increases the technicity of agriculture and demands new approaches and skills. Indirectly, it also complicates the input-output relationship which determines the profitability of operations. Ultimately, it creates an incentive for literacy and numeracy to cope with these new opportunities and responsibilities. One should not, however, exaggerate the immediacy of these relationships. The illiterate farmer can make very significant changes in his methods and procedures without literacy. As the New Dealer peddling farmer training schemes in Roosevelt's America was told: „Why I am only farming half as good as I know how now?". But these changes are going to make the farmer aware that literacy and numeracy are handy skills and, if he does not acquire them himself, he is going to want to see that his children or, at least, his sons do.

As the education of *girls* and *women* is a special problem in many developing societies, we have stressed above the need for actions directed to their service.

In this area – as in all others – the projects which are most likely to be successful are those which respond to existing needs and demands. In countries where the demand for children is high, it may be a useful strategy to relate education for mothers to this need. The UPEL Programme (Universal Primary Education and Literacy) established within the framework of the UNICEF/UNESCO Cooperative Programme will be working precisely in this area. Its purpose will be to encourage mothers to enrol and maintain their children in school. Initially, the programme will be experimental. The appropriate content and approach will probably have to vary from society to society. In one case, literacy training for mothers may be an important element in a programme. In other cases, the emphasis will have to be placed upon pre-literacy activities. The mother will have to be oriented to the culture of the school and trained in ways of encouraging and assisting her children. Initially, this will not mean teaching the children at home – which the mother is probably incapable of doing – but of ensuring that they attend school regularly and have time and a place to study at home. Ultimately, however, mothers are going to want to be more directly involved, and this will require that they themselves become literate. There will be abundant scope for interested donors to contribute to this innovative and promising programme.

There are also many *special areas* which, while they do not deal with literacy training or education directly, have an *important impact* upon them. Establishment of paper production, printing and publishing industries is an obvious and excellent example. The developing world suffers from a severe and growing shortage of cultural paper. Without paper there will be little available teaching materials and without reading material what is the purpose of literacy? The Overseas Book Centre of Canada, with the support of CIDA, has selected the provision of books, educational materials and paper as its special field of interest and competence.

The Centre is also studying the technology for producing paper from agricultural wastes and other stocks available in abundance in the third world. The need, however, exceeds what any single donor can manage. UNESCO has conducted a study of paper production in developing countries with well-developed indigenous paper industries. This would appear to be a promising area for 'horizontal cooperation' among developing countries.

One should not, of course, preclude the possibility of directly assisting literacy activities in developing countries, although one must immediately underline in *appropriate* ways. This will normally mean providing strategic inputs not available in the country concerned. The German Foundation for International Development (DSE) has, for example, emphasized assistance to staff training and has made a very much appreciated contribution in this area.

Perhaps more important than identifying what actions a donor would take is the matter of stressing what actions donors – or other outsiders – should *avoid*. The content and organisation of literacy activities are, we feel, very

much matters best left to the competence and discretion of national authorities. Many of the issues involved are profoundly contentious and it would be quite inappropriate were foreigners to rush in where the nationals fear to tread. The choice of language is an unavoidable issue in designing a literacy programme and in many countries it touches the deepest of human emotions.

One issue which is often overlooked in the debate on international assistance in development is that of the *identity of the aided project*. Is it the project to which the cheque is sent or the project or programmes which benefit from the 'displacement effect' which frees money from the aided project to be used for literacy or other purposes? If this is the case, the most appropriate strategy might be for foreign assistance to concentrate upon capital intensive projects – as in fact is usually the case – and to encourage national authorities to concentrate their resources on those development activities which only those involved in the political culture have the right and responsibility to handle. Those matters concerned with the process of action – as opposed to the tools and structures of education – are largely in this latter category.

One danger in this approach is that the foreign donor not only commits his own funds to a particular project, but also obliges the recipient to make a matching contribution. In this way, the donor decides not only the use of his own money, but also that of the aided country. It might be farsighted for donors to ask themselves whether it is more important to have those whom it is intended to assist sharing the burdens and destiny of a particular project or to have them looking after the parts of the 'store' that they alone can manage.

Within the developing world it is more than ever urgent to pay especial attention to the most fragile economies and societies. These are mostly those classified as LDCs, but also includes some other countries emerging from internal upheaval. It is here that the foreign exchange constraints are most severely felt and where some of the direct costs – e.g. fuel, paper, ink – may need to be externally financed. It may well be that even the most willing and able governments will not be able to initiate any new developments unless a major part of both the domestic and foreign exchange costs are met.

2. Some Examples of Co-operation

Co-operation takes many forms and involves many institutions and countries. Two different examples are given here: (a) co-operation between international agencies themselves, in this case UNESCO, one of its specialized institutions (IIEP) and a non-governmental organisation (ICAE); and (b) international assistance to a national literacy campaign (Nicaragua).

a. International Agencies

If we accept that there is a crisis of co-operation for development, then the various international agencies should give some lead in looking afresh at the division of responsibilities between them.

Malcolm Adiseshiah[52] suggests that UNESCO, IIEP and ICAE should co-operate as follows:

Where there has to be governmental commitment and intergovernmental co-operation, UNESCO should take the responsibility for organising the activity. Where there has to be a mix of professional organisations and expertise and governmental involvement in the area of planning, implementation, evaluation of literacy and post-literacy programmes, IIEP should take the leadership. Where the emphasis is on non-governmental bodies and their technical experience and expertise, ICAE and its four regional associations should take the leadership. But this division should be conceived and operated in a flexible manner, without a rigid demarcation of functions. In any given programme, two of the agencies or all three can pool their expertise and resources to help in attacking the illiteracy barrier. The UNESCO-IIEP workshop in Madras in December 1982 on the strategies of literacy and post-literacy planning in which Indian experts joined specialists from other countries, UNICEF, the Commonwealth Secretariat and the UNESCO Institute of Education in Hamburg (which is emerging as an active agency in the post-literacy and evaluation fields) was a good example.

Similarly, the literacy publications undertaken by ICAE with UNESCO funds, and the support to IIEP's literacy programme in Africa provided by the Swedish and Canadian governments and the joint effort of ICAE and the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) which resulted in the Udaipur Declaration are similar examples of flexible co-operation. ICAE has launched the idea and target of literacy for all by 2000 AD. UNESCO should now invite its member states to establish national and sub-national targets for each state by each state to attain the 2000 goal of an illiteracy free world. UNESCO would use for this purpose its regional meetings of Ministers of Education and those responsible for planning in Asia and Africa. It would be quite feasible that by 1987 targets could be established by each country of Asia and Africa and presented to the UNESCO regional meeting of ministers. Thereafter UNESCO could monitor the realisation of targets as part of its periodic regional meetings of ministers. The activities of IIEP and ICAE and its regional bodies would be to provide collective infrastructural support on lines indicated earlier to the countries for the realisation of the targets at the international, regional and sub-regional levels.

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52. Paper on 'Co-operation for Literacy Among International/Intergovernmental and Non-Governmental Organizations'.

In terms of subject areas of future co-operation, some suggestions are offered as a basis for discussion.

To start with, the time for general overall conferences and meetings aimed at emphasising the general importance and priority of literacy is now well past. The intellectual infrastructural aid now needed is for concentrated analysis and diagnosis of particular specific problems relating to literacy and post-literacy (continuing education) faced by the countries and for the diagnostic studies to be followed by exchange of information among the countries on solutions and attempted solutions in order to meet the 2000 year deadline.

One subject area on which the countries concerned have asked for help is in evaluation, including the techniques to be used in assessing the relation of achievements to targets, the learning methods used, the texts and reading materials produced and the extent of realising the objectives besides learning the 3 Rs. A seminar or workshop on evaluation by IIEP in co-operation with UNESCO could be organised at which countries from Asia and Africa could be invited to exchange views and experiences and arrive at various models of evaluation.

This could be followed by regional and sub-regional meetings on evaluation of literacy programmes and techniques in English language speaking countries of Africa and French and Portuguese language speaking people of Africa run by the African Association of Adult Education and IIEP. Similarly, ASPBAE with IIEP could organise similar national and sub-regional workshops on literacy evaluations. The Latin American and Caribbean countries, as noted earlier, have achieved a high literacy rate and UNESCO's major educational programme now in progress can help to assess the factors which have helped to bring these countries to this level of literacy, whose conclusions would be of direct serious relevance to countries in the other continents facing serious problems of attaining the 2000 AD literacy target.

Another subject area which could be a subject of regional and sub-regional workshops and seminars starting in Latin America and the Caribbean to which some Asian and African countries could be invited would be the nexus between literacy and post-literacy programmes. Here again there are various models – one being a segmental approach, involving a campaign segment concentrated on the first two Rs, followed by the third R and income earning skills segment, followed further by a segment of learning to read simple books and texts and participate in structured discussion groups: the other model at the other extreme is an integrated one where the literacy and post-literacy phases are planned as a single continuing effort: in between these two models are others where segmentation and integration are combined in various ways. The countries are demanding with some urgency exchanges and help on this.

A further subject area which the countries facing illiteracy problems have called attention to, is the financing of the programmes. On this, UNESCO should take the responsibility in organising meetings and undertaking

in depth studies, resulting in publications on this question of financing followed by certain countries like Tanzania, Mauritius, Mexico, Brazil, Cuba, Vietnam and Thailand. UNESCO should organise workshops on financing literacy and post-literacy programmes with the help of those countries in Asia and Africa. There are not enough studies and publications on innovative means of financing literacy programmes which would apply to the financial and economic conditions in which the African and Asian countries are placed and which they must resolve to meet the 2000 AD target.

Other subject areas where ICAE and its regional bodies can provide co-operation and support to the Afro-Asian countries facing serious illiteracy problems include, training and learning techniques which reduce the time period for acquiring literacy, integrating literacy with other development programmes, the place of audio-visual aids in literacy learning; further, UNESCO and IIEP should help through workshops and studies, the countries concerned with information on the various means of securing the joint action in literacy programmes of those responsible for agriculture, small industries, health, information and broadcasting, social welfare and labour, which can speed the attainment of the goal of functional and permanent literacy for all by 2000 AD.

b. Assistance for a National Campaign: The National Literacy Crusade in Nicaragua

As we emphasised earlier, international co-operation for literacy must operate in a wide range of national settings and against a number of quite different ideological backgrounds. Nothing less will even begin to move towards the year 2000 target. In the following paper by Roberto Sáenz Arguello, a form of co-operation is recorded which has been effected since the revolution in Nicaragua. This was not only a success in itself *and* in attracting assistance from all over the world. It was also a success in doing so *on its own terms*. There was no question in this programme of outside agencies setting the terms on which aid was given. Nicaragua at all times kept its own control over external assistance to its national programme.

The National Literacy Crusade is not a thing of the past, even though it ended successfully over three years ago. For us in Nicaragua, the Literacy Crusade is the beginning of a broadbased programme of education for the popular classes. To speak about the Literacy Crusade, about the difficulties that had to be overcome, about the successes achieved, about the international solidarity that it provoked ... is in a certain sense to talk about the very same history that we are living today, though certainly in much more dramatic form.

Among the important historical precedents, we find an article in the programme of General Augusto Cesar Sandino, our greatest national hero, who in 1929 wrote:

Employers should organize in the workplace schools where workers can receive a primary school education without cost.

Years later this demand of Nicaraguan workers to eradicate illiteracy was included in the Programme of the Sandinista National Liberation Front our historical vanguard. And so it was that immediately after the defeat of the dictatorship on July 19, 1979, all sectors of free Nicaragua prepared to organize a vast, massive, urgent literacy programme, which our Revolutionary Government declared as a National Project.

The Nicaraguan National Literacy Crusade was honored in 1980 with the Nadezda K. Drupskaya Prize of UNESCO, recognizing the tremendous significance of its achievement and the tremendous sacrifice of the Nicaraguan people who organized this new insurrection, this time in the cultural field.

The organizational phase of the Crusade covered the period from October 1979 to March 1980. At the start of the Crusade the illiteracy rate was 50.35%. Volunteer literacy teachers were organized and trained through workshops. The literacy training offered in these workshops put into practice many values of a revolutionary education, such as learning by doing, learning as a collective act, the relation between action and reflection, and the multiplier effect, which referred to the way all training workshops were multiplied, a participant in one phase training a new group in the next phase. Some pilot projects in literacy teaching were carried out, too, during this organizational period, and the learning materials for the Crusade were developed.

The implementation phase of the Crusade went from March 13, to August 23, 1980. From the time that the 52,180 young literacy 'brigadistas' dispersed themselves throughout the countryside and 30,000 other volunteer literacy teachers, peasants and workers, began to work in the cities, the Literacy Crusade continued, in spite of severe operational difficulties including the assassination of eight literacy teachers in various parts of the country.

We can summarize the results as follows:

A victory over illiteracy, which is reduced to a rate of 12.96%, so that it is no longer an ugly scar of the past, although we obviously must continue to fight to eradicate it completely. In fact, Nicaragua has proposed to eradicate illiteracy completely by 1990, as a goal within the context of UNESCO's Educational Project for Latin America and the Caribbean.

The National Literacy Crusade was a conscientization process, at a national level, helping the Nicaraguan people marginalized in the past, to become integrated freely and actively into the process of democratization and national reconstruction of the country.

The political consciousness of Nicaraguan youth was deepened profoundly, through the experience of living with peasant families during the five months of the Literacy Crusade.

The Crusade also contributed to national unity, bringing together for the first time people of the countryside with those of the cities, those of the Atlantic coast, with the rest of the country.

The Literacy Crusade strengthened the structures of the mass organizations, which are the basic forms of popular participation in the economic, social, and political development of Nicaragua.

Research carried out during the Crusade gave us a deeper sense of our history, geography, culture, flora, and fauna.

And finally, the conditions were prepared for an ongoing Adult Education Programme to continue immediately after the Crusade.

From the very beginning stages of organization of the Crusade, we were clear that any fight against illiteracy had to include these goals as fundamental requirements:

(a) To expand services in primary education in order to fight illiteracy in its roots;
(b) to carry out a literacy campaign;
(c) to develop post-literacy programmes and other educational programmes as a permanent service to adults of the popular classes.

The second lesson that our experience in literacy has taught us is that the fight against illiteracy and for an adult education programme are only possible when there is a committed government policy and massive popular participation, both conditions which are intimately linked to the existence of an authentic revolutionary process.

From a methodological perspective, we learned that in a true educational process both the teacher and the learner are mutually involved in teaching and learning. We also learned that a basic principle of popular education is the formation of a patriotic consciousness and of love for people. It was confirmed for us that education must be defined and take root within the particular socio-economic and political reality of any country and must respond to the urgent needs for a skilled labour force.

From the beginning we counted on the decisive support of the Executive Council of UNESCO. In January of 1980, the Director General of UNESCO, Amadou Mahtar M'Bow, made the following plea:

> In the name of the United Nations Organization for Education, Science, and Culture, and with the unanimous support of its Executive Council, I invite all governments, national commissions of UNESCO, public and private institutions of all member states, as well as governmental and nongovernmental international organizations and foundations, to demonstrate their active solidarity with liberated Nicaragua.

This important request on behalf of the Director General of UNESCO was met by the international community with general support for the struggle of the Nicaraguan people for peace and reconstruction. But in some countries there was an information boycott.

With the National Literacy Crusade, as with all other priority projects of the Revolution, we gave special attention to its media coverage. Another important aspect of international co-operation was the opportunity we were given to analyse the results of the literacy campaigns carried out in Cuba, Angola, Guinea Bissau, Cape Verde and Mozambique.

The results – that is, the successes, difficulties, and even the efforts – of other experiences provided critical input for us as we began to define our own original formula for mounting a literacy campaign. And, in the same fashion, Nicaragua is today able to offer the lessons of its experiences to other countries such as Ethiopia, Bolivia, Colombia, Surinam and the Dominican Republic.

In terms of technical consultation, we had the supportive assistance of UNESCO, the Organization of American States (OEA), Dimension Educativa of Colombia, the Evangelical Committee of Christian Education (CELADEC), the Superior Council of Central American Universities (CSUCA) and the Ministry of Education of Cuba. We also received invaluable support and advice from friends such as Paulo Freire, Abel Prieto, Raul Ferrer, and others. Through agreements between the government of Nicaragua and the governments of Cuba, Spain, the Dominican Republic, and Costa Rica, we had the service of international teachers, as well as other international co-operants who were organized to come through solidarity committees, nongovernmental organizations, or came to Nicaragua on their own initiative – all arriving in Nicaragua from Mexico, Colombia, Peru, Guatemala, Honduras, Bolivia, Chile, Ecuador, Argentina, Uruguay, El Salvador, the United States, Angola, Viet-Nam, the Democratic Republic of Germany, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, the Federal Republic of Germany, France ...

And all of these people remain unforgettable in the grateful memory of the people of Nicaragua and our Revolutionary Government.

In the financial realm, the National Literacy Crusade was budgeted at a cost of 200,000,000 cordobas, or US $ 20,000,000. This quantity far exceeded the possibilities of our impoverished economy, which for so many years had been the victim of exploitation and corruption. And so we found it necessary to ask for international support. During the preparatory phases of the campaign, one of the most positive experiences we had in securing financial and material resources was through direct visits to the agencies from which we had solicited aid. There were three major trips made during those months: two to Europe and one to the United States. In these trips, we built upon the previous experiences of solidarity work that developed during our struggle for liberation, recognizing, as we have already mentioned, that the National Literacy Crusade was not an isolated effort, separate from the revolutionary process as a whole.

Thus we received at that time, and no doubt we will continue to receive, economic support from international organizations (UNESCO), regional organizations (OEA, European Economic Community), and from religious, political, social, and cultural organizations of friendly nations and peoples. Total expenditure on the National Literacy Crusade amounted to 70,845,391 cordobas, and the total income through donations (both in cash and materials), from foreign, national, and state sources amounted to 122,218,082 cordobas. This left a surplus of income over expenditures totaling 51,372,691 cordobas, which contributed notably to getting off the ground the adult Education Programme immediately following the National Literacy Crusade, and as a continuation of it.

Without a doubt the costs of the Literacy Crusade would have been considerably higher if there had been financial compensation for the efforts and sacrifice of the 100,000 volunteer literacy teachers, their parents, the supportive work of the mass organizations and state institutions, the organizational and co-ordination work of literacy commissions operating at the municipal, departmental (provincial), and national levels, not to speak of the help of the students in the Crusade and their communities, whether rural or urban, who arranged transport, mail service, room and board, and locales for the literacy classes.

Nevertheless, we believe that the international assistance to the Crusade was a decisive support to the efforts of our people. Foreign donations totaled 77,069,854 cordobas in cash and 14,483,934 cordobas in materials.

We are presently continuing the Crusade through our Adult Education Programme. The programme is oriented to Nicaragua's popular classes, that is agricultural and industrial workers, and residents of the poorest barrios of our cities. The objectives of the programme are to continue reducing the illiteracy rate and to offer students in the programme a basic education that won't allow them to become illiterate again through disuse, and that rather will permit them to integrate themselves into various programmes of cultural advancement, technical training, and higher education.

c. Less Orthodox Initiatives

Just as individual and group enthusiasm can be spurred – both nationally and internationally – by evident and sometimes dramatic political change, there are also a number of other possibilities for less orthodox initiatives. When resources are scarce we must think of new ways in which they can be mobilised. As Gillette and Ryan point out,[53] it is possible to use:

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53. Seminar paper, op.cit.

otherwise untapped resources in cash and, increasingly, in kind; these may be collected and transferred for educational and literacy ventures.

A few examples:

The Norwegian Secondary School Pupils Association raised about US $ 180,000 for a literacy campaign in Zambia. The money was raised not as a charity action but through what the English call the 'bob-a-job' system, under which thousands of pupils got a day off from school on condition that they did some useful job and remitted their day's earnings to the project. (A similar effort took place in Denmark.)

In Britain, the Tools for Self Reliance drive collects and refurbishes old but serviceable tools, while doing public information work on themes such as underdevelopment and its causes, problems of high technology and intermediate technology, waste in industrialised countries, etc. The tools are then packed off to non-profit third world ventures including education and training programmes. (Similar schemes exist in Australia, New Zealand, Holland and France.)

The Ølstykke municipality in the suburbs of Copenhagen is converting school document reproduction to all-photocopy. Instead of throwing away the many manual duplicating machines now in service, it is working through the Danish Volunteer Programme to refurbish them and supply them – with spare parts, paper, ink and training in their use and upkeep – to educational projects in a number of African countries.

The National Commission for UNESCO of one European country is now considering the possibility of offering to print, bind and ship free of charge 10,000 literacy primers prepared for the literacy campaign now getting under way in Cape Verde. This effort would be done through the National Printery of the country which has very modern equipment but not enough work to do.

The Canadian Organisation for Development through Education (CODE) has come to an agreement in principle with the paper industry owners to donate – on a short-term basis and in selected cases at least – one dollar's worth of paper for every dollar's worth purchased by literacy programmes in developing countries or by international agencies co-operating with such programmes.

Each of these initiatives has several or all of the following common features: they are ingenious ways of recycling or mobilising in other ways first world resources that would not otherwise become available to developing countries' educational and literacy work; they involve volunteer participation in the sending countries; they focus on concrete projects on which they make a tangible impact; they provide an ideal framework for obtaining feedback suitable for public information and education programmes in the sending countries on development issues; they do not force high technology on the

recipient countries; and they require little or no hard currency outlay from sending or receiving countries.

What can be done to make such ventures better known, to help them grow and to stimulate the creation of similar ventures in other countries?

The Seminar was unusual in a number of respects:

Senior personnel from the third world were able to meet together to exchange information and ideas.

The third world met in free discussion with a number of development/donor agencies – the first meeting on literacy ever convened of this kind.

There was new emphasis on South South and other regional efforts, especially in research, training and the exchange of ideas.

There was renewed commitment to the urgency of literacy.

It is this last point with which we must conclude and which we must continue to emphasise. Without that commitment, without a renewed sense of urgency we shall not create a literate world. And without such a world there is unlikely to be an effective development, an improvement in the quality of life for those who need it most.

Appendix I
Case Studies from Selected Countries

The Seminar was presented with a number of country studies. These not only show the range of literacy work now being attempted, but also the very great variety of approaches and achievements in a number of different situations. Some (e.g. Nicaragua) have already been used in previous chapters, while others are included here to enrich the general ideas already noted earlier. Pat Ellis on the Caribbean emphasises the role of non-governmental organisations while Yao Zhongda (China) and Gudeto Mammo (Ethiopia) make possible a comparison between government actions in two different revolutionary settings. There are also statements on the planning, implementation and monitoring of large-scale literacy programmes in Burma (Nyi Nyi), Botswana (Edwin Townsend Coles), India (D.V. Sharma), Kenya (D. Odhiambo and D. Macharia) and Mozambique (Rui Fonseca). Finally, there is a note on Latin America by César Picón Espinoza and an account of policy and progress in Malawi (Government of Malawi).

1. The Caribbean

Pat Ellis[54] writes that:

Non-Formal Education programmes have existed in the islands of the Caribbean for a long time. Historically and traditionally they have been the results of initiatives of non-governmental organisations such as the churches, the YWCY and YMCA and other social welfare community groups. Generally speaking the programmes organized by these groups were seen as a means of providing social welfare, leisure time and cultural activities for a wide cross section of people in the society, mainly women. Particular attention was not paid to the educational value and those who initiated such programmes rarely if ever saw themselves as educators, but rather as social workers providing a service to their less fortunate sisters and brothers in the community. Consequently these programmes did not enjoy the same high status as formal schools or adult education classes leading to formal qualifications.

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54. Paper on 'Adult Education and Literacy in the Caribbean: a brief look at recent developments'.

Since these NFE programmes were seen to be fulfilling a social function their content was often limited to cultural activities and improving the home-making skills of women to make them better housewives and mothers. Where specific skills were taught these were gender specific and the aim was not to provide participants with marketable skills but to reinforce the stereotype roles of men and women in the society. Such skills training as was available in these programmes therefore continued to be linked to and to perpetuate the perceptions of male and female work. In addition, many of these programmes were short-term and ran on an ad hoc basis without any clearly defined and/or stated objectives.

The majority of those who taught or worked in these programmes were women who did so on the part-time voluntary basis. They went when, how and for as long as they could. When they could not, the programmes were usually discontinued. The same can be said for women who participated in the programmes. There is no doubt that those who taught/worked in these programmes had useful information and probably specific skills to pass on. However, they had had no training in or exposure to techniques and methods of teaching adults and might not have seen this as necessary even if such opportunities were available, which they were not.

As a result, although these programmes did and have played an important part and influenced the lives of many people (especially women) in the region, the potential which such programmes can have for promoting social and economic development of the individual and of the community, has not been effectively tapped.

In the early seventies there began to emerge a deeper understanding of the concept of life-long education and learning, and a growing awareness of the important role that non-formal education can and must play in the process of social economic and cultural development in each country and in the region as a whole. Gradually this has led to an expansion of the definition of adult education and to a number of activities at the regional and at the national level to increase both the quality and quantity of NFE programmes.

At the *regional level* a number of meetings, seminars and conferences have provided a forum for people from the various islands to engage in discussion and critical analysis of the concepts, issues and strategies which could be and are being used to promote and encourage NFE. At such gatherings representatives from government and NGOs have the opportunities to meet with their counterparts from the islands and from international agencies and other parts of the world to examine and explore the possibilities and implications of NFE programmes. UNESCO and ICAE among others, have been instrumental in facilitating this dialogue through their provision of funding and technical assistance for regional seminars. Examples of these include:

A Regional Seminar on Adult Education in Trinidad in 1973;

Meeting of Experts for Adult Education Institutions in St. Lucia in 1980;

An international Seminar on Adult Education Training and Employment in Trinidad in 1981; and

The Regional Seminar on Adult Education and Literacy in St. Lucia in June 1983.

At the same time there are in the Caribbean a number of regional institutions and agencies which are involved in promoting NFE and in providing a number of such programmes. A few examples are:

The Commonwealth Youth Programme with headquarters in Guyana provides training in community work for youth leaders from all of the islands.

The Caribbean Conference of Churches through its education for development programmes is engaged in a wide variety of programmes and projects in the rural communities in various islands.

The Women and Development Unit (U.W.I.) is involved in organizing a vast variety of programmes, projects and activities for women in rural communities in the Windward and Leeward Islands, as well as in training change agents, community facilitators and trainers in the use of a participatory methodology to facilitate individual and community development.

The Caricom Secretariat.[55] As a result of meetings and discussions among Ministers of Education on the state and status of Adult Education in the region, the Secretariat in 1981 engaged the services of Professor Kwesi Ampene to examine and assess the situation and to advise on possible policies and strategies which might be used to enhance the work being done in this area.

The Caribbean Council of Adult Education (CARCAE). The Council became fully established at its first General Assembly in May 1983 in The Bahamas. This was the culmination of approximately six years of groundwork by a working committee. In collaboration with the Extra Mural Department U.W.I. Trinidad, and University of Guyana (U.G.) it has been able to offer a three-year Certificate Course for Teachers of Adults in the region. Started in 1978 this course has just completed its second cycle and approximately 45 persons have benefited. The Council has also been recognized by Caricom as the official regional NGO and advisor of Adult Education.

At the *national level* and as the interest in and concern for NFE continues to grow, both Government institutions and NGOs have begun to explore new approaches and to develop mechanisms and strategies for its promotion.

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55. An official governmental institution which provides a forum for ministers and other officials of government to meet, discuss and make decisions on matters of mutual concern.

At the same time attempts are being made to rationalize, systematize and co-ordinate the efforts of the myriad groups engaged in this area of activity. To this end some of the governments have established divisions, departments and/or units for Adult Education within their Ministries of Education, and are in the process of developing and implementing national plans of action for Non-Formal Education and literacy.

The following breakdown gives an idea of the range and scope of initiatives which some of the governments in the region have taken and plan to take to promote NFE and literacy.[56]

Barbados

Adult Education programme through adult centres 1971.

Establishment of a National Training Board.

Ministry of Education coordinates programmes being offered by various ministries of government, e.g. Ministry of Labour.

Currently evaluating and reviewing government adult education programmes vis-à-vis programmes offered by other agencies.

Dominica

Adult Education Centre in the Ministry of Education organizes adult education programmes with emphasis on literacy. It has set up forty-five Adult Education Committees in various communities in the five educational districts.

Plans for a survey to ascertain the level of literacy in the country.

Grenada

A national adult education programme with emphasis on eradicating illiteracy, on skills training and on political and citizenship education.

Established a Centre for Popular Education (CPE) 1980.

Guyana

A Ministry on Higher Education.

A national Advisory Council on Adult Education.

Emphasis on literacy, development education and training.

Jamaica

Literacy Evaluation and Planning Committee (1970) to evaluate the existing literacy programme and to develop plans for eradication of illiteracy within eight years.

National Literacy Programme (1972).

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56. Information taken from Country Papers presented at UNESCO Regional Seminar on 'Adult Education and Literacy', St. Lucia, June 1983.

Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy (JAMAL Foundation) established 1974. It organizes and conducts a wide variety of programmes through the islands.[57]

Nevis

Ministry of Education appointed a National Adult and Continuing Education Council to examine the needs for a continuing education programme, to assist in formulating policy on adult and continuing education, and to formulate programmes for training facilitators, research and production of materials.

Plans for a three-week training course for volunteer facilitators with assistance from OCOD Canada (July 1983).

St. Lucia

Feasibility study on national literacy and national consultation on education conference 1980.

National plan of action for the establishment of a National Literacy Council and the re-establishment of the Adult Education Division of the Ministry.

Standing Committee on Creole studies.

St. Vincent

National Board of Education identified need for an Adult Education Association.

UNESCO Adult Education Project to identify needs, coordinate efforts and develop suitable programmes in Adult NFE.[58]

Efforts being made by Ministry of Education to obtain a full-time qualified person to coordinate Adult NFE programmes.

Trinidad and Tobago

The Education Extension Services established in 1971 provides a wide and diversified programme covering such areas as family life education, education for living, public affairs and citizenship education and leisure time education.

In addition to the above, some NFE is also provided in each island through the programmes of Ministries of Agriculture, Health and Community Development whose field officers work with people at the community level. In some of the islands serious attempts are being made to coordinate and to facilitate closer collaboration between these field officers and to expose them to training which will help them to acquire and use techniques and methods of NFE. However, a great deal more work needs to be done in this area.

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57. See details in next section.

58. Adult Education in St. Vincent – Project Findings and Recommendations. UNESCO/UNDP, Paris 1975.

Initiatives by NGOs

As has already been indicated, much of the work in NFE in the Caribbean has been organized and carried out by private voluntary NGOs, large numbers of which exist in every island. For example in St. Lucia there are forty-three NGOs engaged in NFE programmes. However, the movement towards closer collaboration in recent years has resulted in the formation of National Associations of Adult Education. The Guyana Association, the oldest, recently celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary, and more recently similar national bodies have been formed in Antigua, The Bahamas, Barbados, St. Kitts, St. Lucia and Trinidad and Tobago. These associations are all affiliated to the Regional Council (CARCAE) and at the national level they are encouraging groups and agencies involved in NFE to become members. The Antigua and St. Lucia associations have been particularly active, the former has published a directory of all organizations and agencies involved in Adult Education in the island, while the latter has organized a number of workshops and seminars on NFE and literacy and operates a library service.

Literacy in the Caribbean

Generally speaking illiteracy has not been and is not as serious a problem in the Caribbean as it is in some other parts of the Third World. Barbados has for long boasted of a 98% literacy rate, by the end of the sixties illiteracy was no longer a problem in Trinidad and in 1980 the illiteracy rate in Nevis was only 2.3%.[59] However, problems of illiteracy do exist in varying degrees in the islands of the region. In Jamaica in 1960 the estimated illiteracy rate was just under 50%, in Dominica the estimate is 30% and in St. Lucia 13.5% with a functional illiteracy rate (i.e. less than five years of primary schooling) of 46.5%.[60] In the case of Dominica and St. Lucia, the large percentage of those who are illiterate can be explained by the existence of a large number of Creole-speaking (French Patois) persons.

In spite of an overall picture of comparatively low illiteracy rates, there has been in recent years an increase in the awareness of the number of illiterate and/or semi-literate people in the islands, and of the serious implications that this can have on national development. The number of school leavers who at the completion of their formal education are barely literate is increasing and suggests that illiteracy may in fact be on the increase. For example, Carrington has projected a 9.5% functional illiteracy rate for Nevis by 1990.

This type of situation has prompted many governments to spearhead a thrust to stem the possibility of illiteracy at its source, i.e. in schools, and to eradicate

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59. 'Literacy in the English Speaking Caribbean', L. Carrington, 1980. UNESCO document.

60. Country Reports, op.cit.

illiteracy wherever it exists in the society. Individual governments have or are in the process of devising strategies and developing literacy programmes to achieve these objectives.

By and large it has been accepted that programmes which aim to eradicate illiteracy have to be seen as one component of a broader-based NFE programme. Strategies to achieve this objective vary from island to island according to the existing situation, level of literacy, national plans and available resources.

In some islands government has recognized the need to reappraise the levels of literacy, to redefine what it is in the particular social and cultural context, and to decide how best to tackle the problems of illiteracy. Barbados is formulating a literacy survey as well as reviewing its adult education programmes, so are Dominica and Nevis. In Nevis this is the first part of a three-phase programme to eradicate illiteracy. In other countries national plans of action include literacy programmes as part of broader NFE programmes, linked to skills training and cooperative education for social and economic self-reliance; and to civic and development education to enable greater participation in the process of national development.

Many of these plans are still in the planning stages and with the exception of Jamaica, there has been to date no mass literacy programmes in the English-speaking Caribbean. The Jamaican experience in mass literacy and the Jamal programme has been so well documented and is so well known that only a very brief outline will be given here.

The JAMAL Programme

Jamal was established in 1972 to take over the activities of the National Literacy Board – which had been appointed in 1970 to implement the national literacy programme. The Jamal programme has been expanded to encompass the concept of continuing education and to see the eradication of illiteracy as the first phase in the process. The government allocates funds to the programme but the Foundation has also received funding from a number of international and UN agencies (UNESCO/UNDP) and other private agencies.

The bulk of the work of the Foundation is carried out by approximately 2,000 voluntary workers. There are approximately 12,000 voluntary teachers who teach in part-time day and evening classes in full-time and part-time adult education centres, in classes run by NGOs and in classes for inmates in correctional institutes. These volunteer teachers are exposed to training in the adult education centres and literacy teachers' centres. Jamal's programmes include:

Classes in the basic skills of literacy and numeracy.

A guidance unit for new literates.

The production of material for new literates – readers, teachers guides workbooks and AV materials.

Radio and TV programmes including *TOTAL*, a training programme for teachers of adult literacy, and *Teaching Box* of an instructional programme for teaching adults to read and write.

Links with the Public library service.

A five-year development plan which includes the Illiteracy Prevention Programme, the Remedial Literacy Plan, the Literacy and Skills Reclamation Thrust and the Prevention of Regression Thrust.

The following figures give an idea of the scope and size of Jamal's operations (March 1981):

No. of Centres	3,895
No. of classes	7,495
Student enrolment	88,728
Students attending	39,082
Teachers enrolled	12,907
Teachers in service	5,098

As has been the case in Jamaica those involved in planning NFE and literacy programmes in some of the other islands are beginning to see the media as an important resource and teaching tool and some tentative steps are being taken in this direction.

Yao Zhongda (right) and Li Zepeng (left) participants from The People's Republic of China

2. Literacy in China

by Yao Zhongda

It is beyond question that illiteracy is a major cause of ignorance, conservatism and backwardness among human beings. Moreover, in any place or any country, a great number of illiterates is bound to hinder gravely the development of production, the expansion of technology, the civilization of spirit and the progress of society. It is one of the most helpful activities to the development of human society to pay great attention to literacy and bring a great advance in it.

a. The Literacy of New China in the Past 30 Years and Its Present Situation

It is well known that old China was flooded with a big illiterate population. Before the founding of the People's Republic of China, Mao Zedong, a leader of the Chinese people, pointed out sharply: „Elimination of illiteracy is the necessary condition for the building of New China." After the founding of New China, eliminating illiteracy has always been one of the basic policies of the state. For this reason, in the early years of the founding of New China, a large-scale literacy movement had been quickly launched, the important signs of which were activities of propaganda and education within the whole population, mobilization of all literates in the country to take part in the literacy teaching programme, and the organization of millions of literates to attend various forms of literacy classes.

At the same time the country took a series of effective measures in literacy work. These included the setting up of a systematic administration from the Central Government down to the grass-roots political organizations, the allocation of tens of thousands of full-time cadres in charge of literacy, a great deal of investment and the establishment of a complete set of rules and regulations; these included targets, the standard of literacy to be achieved, a system of examination and inspection and systems of encouragement and reward to teachers and students. It got tangible results and reduced the adult illiteracy rate to 43% in 1959 from 80% in 1950.

As all foreign friends of China will know, from the beginning of the 1960s to the middle of the 1970s China suffered as long as 15 years from a social chaos caused by troubles at home and abroad. And in this period literacy work came to a complete standstill. New illiterates appeared and those who had passed through literacy classes became illiterate again. The rate of adult illiteracy increased to 48.4%.

At the end of 1976, the long years of internal disorder came to an end and the country entered a new stage of socialist construction. In time, the State Council issued directives on the elimination of illiteracy; this means that literacy work has been restored and developed as quickly as possible. After five years of literacy work with adults plus the development of elementary education, the illiterates and semi-literates among the population above the age of 12 have been reduced to 25% by the end of July 1982 according to the Third National Census. Among this group, illiterates and semi-literates among the population of youngsters, youths and adults between the ages of 12 and 40 account for 20%. In other words the situation of widespread illiteracy in China has been totally changed.

b. Future Developments

Chairman Mao Zedong foresaw 34 years ago that with the appearance of the climax of economic construction, there must follow a climax of cultural construction. The times in which the Chinese people were regarded as uncivilized have forever passed. Our nation will be of a high cultural level before the world.

The Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee of the Communist Party of China in 1979 decided that the whole party must shift its stress onto national economic construction; it simultaneously formulated a series of policies helpful to the development of industrial and agricultural production and all-round readjustment and reforms have been carried out to increase economic benefits. To complement this development, a massive enthusiastic upsurge has been created for learning to read and write, studying science, paying attention to current affairs and to present policies, as well as studying political theories.

The elimination of illiteracy as well as linguistic knowledge are essential conditions for further learning in science and technology and in studying political theory. Day by day this objective law is being understood, accepted and put into practice by most of the people. This is the basic reason for the quick development of literacy.

The targets set for each level of government are important means to promote literacy. In the light of the programme for the popularization of elementary education (which will be fulfilled in the 1980s), the goal of literacy in China is to eliminate illiterates among the youths and adults by the end of 1995. According to this goal, each province, municipality and autonomous region will draw up its own literacy programme combining the general goal of the state with the local conditions, including the needs of production and the development of cultural life in each area. In this way we have worked out detailed tasks and procedures for the literacy programmes.

Two examples of provincial policy – from Shandong and Shanxi – will illustrate the type of policy now being pursued. Shandong Province is located along the coast in the east of China with a population of 74 million. The illiterates account for 12.6% of the population. The provincial government has decided to instruct those counties and villages which have not finished the work of literacy to ensure that contracts must be made among the school teachers and illiterates themselves. Those who have finished the work on time will be rewarded and those who don't will be fined (to pay for the literacy fund). Shanxi Province is in the middle of China. The rate of illiterates among the youths and adults makes up only 4.7%. In order to reduce this still further, the provincial government has agreed that the outlay of those towns and villages which finish their literacy tasks within the set time will be paid by the counties and districts and the outlay of those which don't will be paid by themselves.

In the past two or three years, not a few local governments have stipulated by themselves that illiterates should not enjoy the right to recruitment as workers and soldiers or in the selection of other cadres. Priority is given to literacy requirements in choosing and commending advanced units and model workers. 'No illiterate' is included in the conditions for 'Civilized Households', 'Model Households' and 'Five-good Families'. Honour certificates of 'Household without Illiterates' are issued and honour plates are hung on the doors to those households in some counties in Xinjian Uygur Autonomous Region. This has aroused a vigorous upsurge amoung the various national minorities to take an active part in the literacy campaign and strive for 'Household without Illiterates'. All these regulations and measures give added impetus to the development of literacy.

However, viewed from the situation of the whole country, there is still a hard journey to go in combating illiteracy. There are a number of reasons:

1. The unbalanced development of the economy has resulted in the unbalanced development of education including literacy work. There are 29 mainland provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions. Among the whole population aged from 12 to 40, illiterates and semi-literates account for 4% to 15% in 12 provinces and municipalities and in another 9 provinces and autonomous regions they account for 15.3% to 25%. Comparatively speaking, these 21 provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions are more developed economically while in the remaining 8 provinces and autonomous regions with 30% to 50% illiterates and semi-literates there is less development. These are mostly remote areas, poverty-stricken mountainous areas or regions inhabited by scattered national minorities. The traditional mode of production and habits and customs have not changed much. They have not seen the urgent need for literacy.

2. Most of the illiterates and semi-literates are women. According to the Third National Census of 1982, by sample analysis of 65.98 million people above

the age of 12, women make up 69.6% of the total illiterates and among the illiterates between the ages of 12-40, women account for 76%. Among some national minorities women are all illiterates. Only some younger of these illiterate women are active and take part in literacy study. Part of the young and nearly all the middle-aged women illiterates are so far still satisfied with bearing children, managing household affairs or taking up simple handwork. They look upon literacy as of no importance or shrink back from difficulties. It is hard to enrol them in study and even harder for them to reach literacy.

3. Most of the national minorities do not have their own written languages.

4. Most of the Chinese are of Han nationality and their written language is Chinese which is more difficult than alphabetic writing. This gets half the result with twice the effort.

To sum up, the continuing development of the literacy campaign and the follow-up literacy work in a certain period all rely on:

the political and economic development of the country;
the development of elementary education;
the implementation of practical and powerful guiding principles, policies and measures;
the organic combination of the government and social forces in all walks of life.

The harnessing of all the state's resources in mobilising popular support for literacy is a characteristic of all revolutionary societies. Where conditions are favourable (e.g. Cuba) most illiteracy may be eliminated by one mass campaign. In the case of China, with all the complexities of geography, culture and history outlined by Yao Zhongda, a mass campaign made a significant impact, but this has had to be followed by more intensive, selective approaches which still continue.

Ethiopia, the subject of the next case study, has something of the cultural and geographical complexity of China. But its revolution is relatively recent (1974) and its national mass literacy campaign (launched in 1979) still continues.

3. Experience in Ethiopia

by Gudeta Mammo

a. Introduction

Many social conditions were deplorable in Ethiopia before the 1974 Popular Revolution; among them was the education of the masses. In particular, the schools were built mainly in urban areas and the rural parts of the country were neglected. There were only 5 primary Teachers' Training Institutes (TTIs) throughout the country. Overall there were about 18 per cent of school age children in schools. Adult Education was nominal and 93 per cent of the Ethiopian population was illiterate in 1974.

After the Revolution, education became one of the priorities in the government's development programmes. Rural areas were given priority in school construction and the number of TTIs increased; by 1982 there were eleven of them with an annual enrolment of about 6000 primary school teachers in training. The plan is to build one TTI in each of 15 regions.[61] The participation rate of school age children has gone up to 47 per cent according to the school census of 1982.

There has been a parallel emphasis on non-formal adult education, especially since the launching of the National Literacy Campaign in 1979. Based on the needs and aspirations of the people there were by January 1983, 6.7 million males and 7.3 million females who had enrolled in the programme. Of this total, some 4.2 million males and 4.0 million females were certified as literate by 1982. Thus the overall illiteracy rate dropped from 93 per cent in 1974 to 46.6 per cent in 1982. Part of this achievement has involved the distribution of primers and other reading materials in 15 national languages.

The support services to sustain permanent literacy include: reading rooms, eleven educational radio transmitters which cover about 90 per cent of the country and Community Skills Training Centres (CSTCs). The latter are training men and women in practical life situations – such as health education, agriculture, carpentry, weaving, pottery, metal work and political education. They sell their products and develop their own revolving fund; in this way it is intended that they should ultimately become self-sufficient in meeting their own budgetary needs. The CSTCs are located at the district level and their ultimate number will be 600 in the whole country. So far there are 404[62] of them functioning.

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61. In Educational Administration, Addis Ababa city is taken as one of the regions; this makes the 15th region.

62. A study document for *Integrated action in the rural areas*. (Written in Amharic, Mimeo) Addis Ababa, 1983, p.17.

b. A Planning Strategy and Structure

Once the will and the commitment are felt the approaches to the battle should be comprehensive. This means comprehensive planning. Planning large-scale campaigns should envisage not only the target group, accounting for the diversification of ages, languages, target years and so on, but also the strategies for costing and implementation. This implies that the strategies should provide clear indicators on how to start, where to start and with what to start. The Ethiopian approach is one good example. The approach chosen was home-made, simple, and adapted to the current Ethiopian situation.

Because literacy is not an end in itself, its catalytic power as an instrument for development must be followed up by continuing adult education to bring about socio-political, socio-economic and socio-cultural changes which ultimately transform the life style of the masses. To arrive at this final objective appropriate planning strategies should be made to mobilise available resources in a region, in a country and in an international setting.

In Ethiopia the overall co-ordinating structure is provided by the Propaganda and Aid Committee. This is located at the national, regional, provincial, district and village levels. The members of the committee come from different institutions and organisations and have two distinct responsibilities. Firstly they have a responsibility to popularise, motivate, and encourage participation of all sectors of the community in the campaign. Secondly, it is their duty to collect contributions from various sources and deposit the money so collected.

The Propaganda and Aid Coordinating Committee is assisted by a number of mass organisations, professional associations, and social institutions in mobilising resources. They include study forums, trade unions, professional associations, urban dwellers' associations, peasants' associations, youth associations, women associations and church and mosque organisations.

Study forums are a basic organisational form. They are political organs which exist in every governmental and non-governmental organisation. They are dynamic leaders in popularising the National Literacy Campaign. They collect contributions from members and hand over to the Propaganda and Aid Committees. They also mobilise teachers within their own institutions and teach the illiterates free of charge.

So far in absolute figures just over 18 million US $ have been mobilised in cash and about 6 million $ worth of materials, to August 1983. In percentages this is roughly:

Local contributions	65 %
Government allocations	20 %
Bilateral donations	13.5%
International organisations	1.5%

It must be noted here that all the efforts exerted in the campaign have not been costed. The figures would be exorbitant had we been able to cost the free voluntary services of instructors and the time of members of committees. It would be still exorbitant if we include the cost of the Peasants' Associations services to the campaign.

The Peasants' Associations have combined their efforts with available resources to attack rural illiteracy. In addition to the financial contribution to the overall literacy campaign, the Peasants' Associations cooperate in the following activities with the government:

They construct literacy centres in their areas where there are no other places for teaching and learning.

They construct shelters (huts) for the campaigners to stay.

They provide food for the campaigners during the campaign period in their areas.

They provide transport for the campaigners within their localities (mostly by horses and mules).

They transport literacy materials from the district to their local centres.

On the other hand, the central government provides the following facilities for the rural campaigns:

Transportation for the campaigners from the capitals to the regions.

Medical facilities for the campaigners.

Campaign outfits, shoes and umbrellas.

Food for the campaigners in the areas where Peasants' Associations cannot provide.

Transportation of literacy materials up to the regions. The regions transport to the Province and then the Province to the Districts.

The National Literacy Campaign has motivated everyone who is engaged in it to innovate in the production of local materials. Adult educators, regular teachers, school directors and students have been engaged in the production of silk-screen alphabet charts, wooden duplicators and different teaching aids in order to meet the shortage of materials. For the production of materials, especially wall charts, sacks, mats, and even skins are used. In many areas blackboards are made out of a clay-based baking pan ('metad'*).

In support of the National Literacy Campaign, the Director General of UNESCO, Mr. Amadou Mahtar M'Bow launched an International Appeal in Addis Ababa on 22 June 1981. Apart from the popularisation of the campaign and financial assistance obtained through the international

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* 'metad' a clay-made large baking pan for making local bread called *injera*.

appeal, UNESCO has allocated some funds for printing literacy primers and the training of instructors. UNESCO also donated printing paper for the production of functional primers in ten national languages and has made a film ('The Battle for Literacy') which depicts the massive nature and functionality of the campaign and the enthusiasm of the learners.

There have been contributions from UNICEF, WHO and the EEC as well as the USSR, the GDR, Japan, Austria, Algeria and Nigeria.

4. The Burmese Experience

by Nyi Nyi

Burma has an egalitarian society where learning and knowledge are respected and prized and education has been the prime factor in social mobility. Since historical times, Buddhist monasteries serve as learning centres and literacy in Burma has been traditionally high. The 1930 Census gave the average literacy rate of 36.8%, 56% for males and 16.5% for females.

Burma regained her independence in 1948 and the Government expanded facilities in education several-fold and founded a Translation Society, which later developed into a State Literature House. Mass education was also introduced and promoted. The 1953-54 partial census gave a literacy rate of 63.8% for cities and 56.8% for villages. The literacy rate in mid 1970s stood at 70%.

a. Dual Aspect of Education

The Revolutionary Council came into power in 1962 and in the context of its policy declaration, 'The Burmese Way to Socialism', stated that „We must educate the people that to earn one's living by one's own labour and to see dignity in one's own work come into vogue". In view of this, the Revolutionary Council „believes the existing (i.e. 1962) educational system, unequated with livelihood, will have to be transformed". Basic education will be brought within the reach of all. But education is not confined to the school system. „Literature, fine arts, theatre and cinema, etc.", will also be used „to bring into vogue the concept that to serve others' interests is to serve one's own".

A feature of education in Burma is the active participation of segments of society, other than the State, in the cause of education. In this way adults, communities, industrial establishments and the like, contribute to the service which society is undertaking so that the young generation may receive an appropriate education. At the same time the education sector provides the opportunities where these segments of society can contribute to its development as a whole. Under the auspices of people's participation in education, parents and communities contribute money, or just as often, their own work, to help build or repair a school, a sports ground, or other facilities. Industries invite students to practise in their workshops and thus experience the reality of working for their living, and entire communities make joint decisions about how more and better education can be provided for their children. Thus, the society that provides education as a service is understood by its school children as something which is not remote and abstract, but which is the human environment within which they live.

In the same context, students are encouraged to contribute their services even while studying in the society. They would thus participate in building or repairing schools, repair roads, collect data, etc. The most significant and outstanding contribution they have made to society probably remains within the framework of the literacy campaigns. Students participate voluntarily, pay their own fares and expenses, and by living in the villages not only do they teach, but they offer all kinds of assistance from digging wells to harvesting. In the framework of these efforts, not only are students dedicating their work to literacy campaigns, but the villagers themselves, while making considerable efforts to read and write, sense that they owe this to society. The joint efforts of teachers and learners alike probably account for the unique features of Burma's literacy campaigns to which a good deal of their success may be attributable.

b. Development of Literacy Programmes

During the early sixties, the Government realised the need of a literate population for modernisation and development. The first initiative however was taken in 1964 on a pilot scale not by the Government but by a group of students in a Teacher's Training College led by a dedicated educationist who felt the time was no longer on his side as he was getting old. This grew into a movement in 1966 which came to be centrally directed and organised.

Up to 1968, experiments were conducted throughout the country regarding the mode of organisation, mode of study – preparation of teaching materials, method of teaching, production of learning aids, determination of optimum period (required to become a literate), etc., relapse into illiteracy and follow-up measures, etc., etc.

It was noticed that functional literacy is best promoted in two stages – the first stage is acquiring the ability to read, write and calculate (using materials close to their lives) followed by a second stage when the newly literate is encouraged to read further materials which are of interest to him and the society.

Since the Burmese language is monosyllabic and the Burmese writing system is synthetic, consisting of a little over 60 different spellings, it was found that once these are mastered, a person can read correctly (and comprehend) with ease any piece of writing and write as well. Thus a basic *Burmese Primer of Adults* was compiled under the tutelage of a famous Burmese linguist who incorporated the words and events as close to village life and environment as possible. It contains 26 lessons complete with appropriate exercises which are meant to be learnt in 80 class hours – but optimally not more than two hours a day, six days a week, attaining full literacy and numeracy in seven weeks.

The tempo, mood and occupation of the villagers were also studied and the following features were found to be imperative if literacy programmes were to succeed:

Table 3: Coverage of Literacy Programme in Burma (1966—72)

No. of Villages	No. of Base Camps	Population (15-55 years)	No. of Illiterates (15-55 years)			No. of New Literates (15-55 years)			No. of Voluntary Teachers
			Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	251,682	
1,153	1,171	368,254	8,233	80,500	88,733	7,762	77,884	85,646	8,041
797	752	225,953	10,135	40,004	50,139	8,940	36,432	45,373	7,134
543	554	447,934	3,331	43,883	47,214	3,024	40,514	43,538	7,498
1,375	2,095	452,872	7,631	86,990	93,621	6,676	79,439	86,115	15,068
1,631	2,261	428,263	7,092	92,145	99,237	5,842	87,311	93,153	17,204
1,249	1,269	417,148	9,471	111,338	120,809	7,613	99,346	106,959	30,813
1,398	7,449	595,824	8,838	110,300	119,138	7,651	102,772	110,423	27,323
1,067	1,551	457,012	5,050	54,800	59,850	–	–	–	20,108
1,360	1,247	412,447	7,658	89,577	97,235	–	–	–	20,673
1,537	1,355	300,724	4,797	41,930	46,727	–	–	–	25,009
954	970	391,180	6,843	27,041	43,884	–	–	–	12,698
1,427	1,112	288,758	6,297	40,569	46,866	–	–	–	18,955

Total eradication of illiteracy is essential since a prolonged, unending campaign in an area generally led to apathy and demoralisation on the part of the local organiser and the illiterate 'learners'.

Conducted as a mass movement so as to arouse in the whole community the revolutionary upsurge for change, necessary for conducting the campaign.

Organised as high-impact projects, i.e. all resources are concentrated on a selected region, rather than being scattered everywhere.

Employment of no sophisticated techniques which are difficult to convey and support and may not be replicable; courses are held in any convenient place at any convenient time.

Continuous conducting of classes so as to ensure success.

Teaching can be effective only if they are conducted without hampering the learner's daily work.

Necessity for involvement of youth in the campaign since they are most energetic and innovative; it would also bring youth into contact with the rural populace and involve them in the historic mission of national development (and giving them a sense of participation in the mission to build a new nation).

Co-operation of the mass media to arouse and promote country-wide interest and support of the campaign.

Continuous monitoring and assessment to be made so that reinforcement could be brought into areas where interest and tempo have slackened.

In the light of these observations and experience gained in the experimental years between 1966 and 1968, the Central Literacy Supervisory and Co-ordinating Committee was re-organised and chose Meiktila District as a pilot project area for total eradication of illiteracy in 1969. The programme was extended into two more districts in 1970 (Kyaukse and Sagaing districts), four more districts in 1971 (Shwebo, Monywa, Myingyan and Magwe districts) and another four more districts in 1972 (Mandalay, Yamethin, Prome and Pyapon districts). No further extension was made in 1973 as there was a nation-wide campaign for national census and data collection. The coverage of the programme during these years is given in Table 3.

c. Planning and Implementation

Organisation: Since 1969, Literacy programmes in Burma were organised as mass movements, multisectoral in character, low cost with community responsibility, high-profile events with the involvement of national leaders, mass media, etc., using youth as promoters and activators, and ultimately promoting literacy as a means of modernisation and development.

Organisationally, the movement was headed by a Central Literacy Supervisory and Co-ordination Committee with membership from the concerned ministries of the government (e.g. education, health, agriculture, information, culture, etc.), universities and schools, education and youth officials, peasants' and workers' councils (trade unions), mass media, administrative officials, social workers, etc. This organisation was duplicated at the district, township and village levels with appropriate change in membership to ensure close co-ordination and supervision. Except at the central level, the committee would be invariably headed by the member in charge of social services in the Administrative Committee of the Local Government with an education official (at district and township level) and a teacher (at village level) serving as Secretary.

Teachers/Motivators: Experience has shown that the best mix for instilling high motivation was university students with village teachers and other literates. They lived and worked with the villagers so that the illiterates' reluctance and hesitancy in joining the literacy classes was gradually broken down. University students were found to be most innovative in persuading the illiterates especially older women to participate in the campaigns citing their role and obligations in building a new nation, visible advantages of being able to read religious literature and later news and instructions on medicine or how to use fertilizers, possibility of writing to relatives who live far away from the village, etc. This persuasive partnership also led later to improved village sanitation, improved village life and participation in turn of the university students in village activities, bringing them close to the realities of life which the majority of the population share.

In order that the whole movement be not dependent on visitors, village teachers and other village literates also participated in teaching so that they could slowly take over as the students left after their summer vacation.

The students from universities and teacher training colleges were organised by members of the Central Literacy Committee, senior education officials, university rectors, professors and other teachers, student leaders, etc. They were first met in large groups and later again in smaller groups. The highest number of student participation was reached in 1972 when the absorptive capacity for transportation and useful contribution which could be made in the villages was reached. It was 15,000 and they all came as volunteers, paying their own fare to join the campaign.

Cost and Community Responsibility: Literacy campaigns in Burma are probably the lowest cost campaigns ever run as the cost is minimal to the Government. The major cost item was the cost of travel of the student volunteers to the village and once they reached the village, they were looked after by the village, in accordance with the tradition of Burmese hospitality. It was at first wondered whether they should be paid by the Government as they were already contributing their labour voluntarily. However, although it was not

large for each participant, the total bill appeared to be quite high for each year.

The organisational campaign each year would be started by the writer appealing to the students' sense of patriotism, sacrifice and mission to serve. The writer would invariably start comparing his life and the opportunity he had for joining the struggle for independence during his student days and the lack of such opportunity for them since they were born two decades late. The opportunity for them now was to build the nation which has now become independent. It was hoped that they would not like to tarnish their reputation to serve the nation by accepting the transportation fare and a small per diem although for the Government it would amount to a substantial sum which had to be taken out of building new schools in remote places or appointing new teachers. It invariably led to the students declining the offer of the Government and the organisers.

Once the visitors reached the villages, they were housed by one or two in each house and would be invited to different meals in different houses – thus sharing the load as well as providing a sense of participation to the whole village. Incidental and teaching material expenses were borne out of a fund established for the purpose by selling postcards, flags, buttons, etc.

The sale of these promotional materials was done throughout the country including the campaign areas in order to sensitise the public and provide a sense of participation and support to all.

Selection of districts: In 1969, when it was decided that the campaign should be launched as a high-impact project by concentrating all efforts in a single area various criteria for selection of that area were proposed and considered. It was eventually decided that possibility of success was the key factor as it would otherwise lead to demoralisation and the demise of the campaign. The criteria were then further refined and the criteria later adopted include: enthusiasm, good local leadership, not too poor area, good accessibility to reach all villages, low illiteracy and without too difficult problems, e.g. language. The movement was later extended to areas which were relatively poorer and whose mother tongue was not Burmese.

Mobilisation of Support: Literacy campaigns were high-profile events which received nationwide support. It received constant news coverage both in radio and print media. National leaders visited the campaign area and were involved in inaugurating the campaign in different villages where thousands of people participated. On many occasions, they led to village fairs and other village social activities. Not only the village elders, village monks were also prominent participants in the movement.

The campaigns later gave birth to many artistic creative products. Songs were composed, dances choreographed and novels written. A novel based on the experience of the movement was awarded the highest National Literature

Prize and the film based on the book also won several Academy Prizes. The movement seems to have unleashed creative talents in the artistic world.

d. Development of Curricula, Learning Materials and Teaching Methods

It was learned early during the experimental years in 1966—68 that primary school readers were not suitable or appropriate as the interest of the adult learners naturally vary considerably from the primary school-age children. This realisation led to development of a totally new curricula which progressed from the known to the unknown (e.g. teaching of alphabets began with 'O') and the themes were those familiar to adult village life and environment. Materials to improve village life and environment were introduced and incorporated well before the 26 lessons were over.

Literacy classes were held continuously until the whole village became literate. The method of teaching was such that any literate person with no pedagogical experience can teach with the help of a teachers' handbook. Adult readers contain subjects of particular interest to peasants and workers such as general knowledge, agriculture, work proficiency, health and nutrition. The aim is to help them develop new ideas and attitudes and gain a broader outlook of life. These readers also include short accounts of the people and culture of the indigenous races of the country, thus contributing to the solidarity of the Union.

A series of training courses were given which vary two to three days, from training of trainers to teachers at the grassroots levels. Teachers' handbooks were also prepared and all teachers were urged to follow the same method so that interchangeability of teachers is possible. Innovations in the use of teaching aids and learning aids however appeared in different areas and some of which were later incorporated and used in regular schools.

During the experiment, it was noticed that for an average learner, a learning period of 80 hours was necessary. However, targets were meant to be broken and records had been set with 56 teaching hours, attaining literacy within a month. Although the record breakers were given due praise, it was not generally encouraged as it might lead to demoralisation of the slower learners.

e. Implementation Issues

It was noticed that the movement was relatively free of problems. Constant monitoring took place and necessary course corrections were made as the problems appeared. Although the movement had a central leadership, the core implementation was in the hands of township and village leadership through decentralised implementation.

The major implementation issue has been the ending of the literacy phase of the campaign. Since it was envisaged that total literacy was the target, the question arose as to the definition of total literacy and who were to judge. Since it would not be possible to teach everyone to read and write, it was ultimately decided that in counting total literacy, the people who died and who were extremely weak and feeble, who migrated to other villages or towns and those unable to learn due to mental retardation be excluded from the list of potential learners.

On attainment of total literacy by one village, all the villagers attending the literacy classes were tested by another village. In order to prevent 'leniency and understanding', the testing was never conducted on reciprocal basis. Thus, village A will test village B and village B will test not village A but C and D.

Another prominent issue has been the question of follow-up measures. Experience has shown that unless follow-up measures were taken relapse into illiteracy was fairly common among the newly literates. A series of supplementary (neo-literate) readers had thus been produced to hold the interest of the neo-literates which began with light humorous pieces, familiar tales and anecdotes from plays, Buddha's birth stories and history, graduating to such topics as improved agriculture, poultry, village sanitation and other useful information. The main bottleneck had been the insufficient quantity of these books and the number of them. The neo-literate publications were so popular that other people also read them and the demand was always higher than the print order. Rejuvenation of a demand for knowledge also took place as a by-product of the literacy movement creating a demand for more newspapers and other reading materials which unfortunately could not always be met.

f. Monitoring and Evaluation

Baseline studies were made in all districts involved in the literacy campaigns before commencement, enumerating the population between 15-55 years of age, the number of illiterates by name and sex, their occupations, etc. The list was periodically updated and the ultimate list of literates with those which had to be removed from the list were submitted to the Township Committee for inspection and approval.

Continuous monitoring was made and most of the problems were solved at the village level through consultation. Several evaluative studies have been made and their results were published in the learned journals.

g. Retrospect

In retrospect, the movement was found to be a genuine mass movement with the participation of hundreds of thousands of people, capturing the heart and soul of the nation. Its undoubted success was probably due to the timely

fulfillment of a need of the people. However, its contribution would have been more effective and its impact even higher if the whole movement could have been in the context of integrated community development in association with other economic development measures. Nevertheless, it had been a movement which had earned its place in the history of Burma.

India shares the size and complexity of China in a totally different political system. 'Political will' in their circumstances is much more a matter of seeking consensus between many interests rather than mobilising via a single revolutionary drive. As D.V. Sharma indicates, this may lead to changes in direction when the government changes; and the Indian programme certainly involves many different organisations including non-governmental. Interestingly, however, in spite of changes in political direction the commitment to literacy continues.

5. The Indian Experience

by D.V. Sharma

The first large-scale attempt to eradicate illiteracy from India was initiated in 1978. This was necessitated because although the literacy scene appeared to have been improving in terms of percentages since independence, there had still been a phenomenal growth in the absolute number of illiterates. Literacy in the country as a whole increased from 16.67% in 1951 to 24.02% in 1961, to 29.45% in 1971, and to 36.17% in 1981. However the number of illiterates increased progressively from 306.9 millions in 1951 to 333.8 millions in 1961, to 386.7 millions in 1971, and to 437 millions in 1981 (including the estimates for Assam). These averages hide the magnitude of illiteracy in different sectors of the population, e.g. women, rural areas and among scheduled castes/ scheduled tribes. There are also wide district/regional variations.

We appear to have been fighting a losing battle against illiteracy. There was a realisation of the gravity of the situation by the people and the government which led to the launching of the National Adult Education Programmes (NAEP) in 1978. The first cycle of this programme faltered two years later with the change in political direction; but a second movement to eradicate illiteracy in more realistic terms was launched in 1982. This includes not only an adult literacy element, but also the universalisation of primary education. This now has a place, not only in the Minimum Needs Programme of the country, but also in the new 20-Point Economic Programme of the government.

When the programme to eradicate illiteracy was re-launched in 1982, it was done on the basis of a review of the earlier programme in order to make it more effective. The basic preparatory work and the planning strategy for adult literacy were not changed in any significant way when the second cycle of the programme began.

Foundations for the 1978 programme were laid when the eradication of illiteracy found a place in the manifesto of the party which came to power. To give shape to this intent, the National Board of Adult Education, an advisory body to the Government of India, was constituted and meetings were convened to provide the framework and general guidelines in regard to the methods and approach to the implementation of the programme. From 1977 to 1979, the Board met four times, discussed various issues and provided guidelines to the implementing agencies. The members of the Board were drawn from different ministries, voluntary organisations, and the university system, as well as political parties belonging to all shades of opinion. In all, there were nearly 30 members on this Board. The Government of India, particularly the Ministry of Education and Culture, started a process of consultation through various sub-groups and committees constituted to give substance to ideas on various

operational aspects. There were committees on: Preparatory Action, Motivation, Mass Media, Coordination with Agriculture and Irrigation, Coordination with Health and Family Welfare, Coordination with the Labour Ministry, Evaluation and Involvement of Voluntary Agencies.

In addition to these sub-committees, several other sub-groups were constituted to decentralise the process of consultation and involve persons from different walks of life. Several hundred people belonging to different agencies, organisations, and departments were, in fact, involved in the process of consultation at the national level.

As a result of these deliberations the following was achieved:

A National Policy Statement on Adult Education
Guidelines for creation of infrastructure for implementing the programme
Financial provision required for the programme
Crystalisation of roles of different agencies, including voluntary organisations, university system, organised sector and development departments
Guidelines for evolution of a resource support mechanism
Guidelines for involving masses in the programme.

These guidelines were then operationalised at the national, state and local level.

Some of the concrete things that emerged in the process of implementation were:

Several state governments constituted State Boards of Adult Education and called their meetings to promote adult education programmes.

An infrastructure from the national level to the village level was created.

Financial pattern for allocation of funds, including definite provision of funds, was made.

Resource support mechanism in the form of State Resource Centres for Adult Education were established.

The voluntary organisations' involvement in the programme was institutionalised through well-defined guidelines.

University system evolved its own guidelines to implement the programme.

Linkage with development departments and agencies was planned.

The programme was launched simultaneously in different states, and each state had drawn a phased programme for achieving certain targets. The phasing at the national level was based on the discussions of the Planning Commission with the states.

As the programme developed, training guide-lines were established and adapted by states and other implementing agencies, material in almost all the major Indian languages was prepared and distributed, a monitoring system was evolved and operationalised with the expert guidance of Dr. R.H. Dave,

Director, UNESCO Institute of Education/Hamburg and media support was sought and received to a great measure.

It will be worthwhile to mention the role of two important agencies in the implementation of the programme: the voluntary organisations, and the university system.

As far as voluntary organisations are concerned, it had been the policy of the government to encourage those organisations which have a history of working with the people in both the field of development as well as of education. It was also the intention of the government to keep out the organisations which are against the accepted national objectives of secularism, non-violence, and democracy; these did not receive any government help. At one stage, more than 600 voluntary organisations received financial assistance from the government to implement the adult education programme. However, the total involvement of the voluntary organisations was never more than 25 per cent of the programme as a whole.

The university system had decided to play a very important role in the implementation of the programme by providing resource support as well as directly starting adult education centres. Several universities started departments of adult and continuing education and created separate cells called 'adult education programme cell' for playing a more concrete role. The University Grants Commission decided to involve universities and colleges in the adult education programme in a massive and planned way. The UGC has recently decided to lay special emphasis on women, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and people from rural and backward areas as also the handicapped as part of the New 20-Point Economic Programme of the nation.

As the programme progressed, the process of consultation to identify weaknesses continued through various seminars, training programmes and meetings at the state and national levels. It was suggested that apart from evaluation by the implementing agencies, an objective evaluation of the programme should be done by institutions of repute in the field.

As a result of this, a methodology of quick appraisals was evolved by some of these institutions and several states entrusted the task of evaluating their programmes to these institutions. As a result several weaknesses came to the fore. There is a continuous need to review and initiate remedial action in the areas which will be given here. Perhaps, there is no final answer to many of the problems, but a continuous search is very necessary in order to minimise them.

1. It was discovered that training was not being conducted as effectively as envisaged.
2. It was expected that the instructor (teacher) will work as a volunteer in the spirit of a social worker. The paltry amount which is being paid to him to work as a teacher was considered as honorarium, but in reality this

person started looking upon this honorarium as his salary, and instead of being treated as a volunteer he was considered the last in the hierarchical order created for implementation of the programme. Neither his qualification nor his commitment and involvement matched the need of the programme.

3. Although the material was prepared in most of the national languages, it was not always of the required quality and could not be made relevant to meet the needs of the clients to the extent desired. The distribution system of the material needed much improvement.
4. The key problem in the success of the programme continues to be the motivation of the learner. This is a perennial problem and no answer has yet been found to deal with it effectively. Attempts are being made to provide inputs in training, material, programme content, etc. to tackle this problem.
5. In spite of the government's desire to involve voluntary agencies on a massive scale, the programme undertaken by voluntary organisations has not covered more than 25% of the beneficiaries. A satisfactory system of relationship between voluntary organisations and government sector has not yet been evolved. The government's rules and regulations continue to inhibit the involvement of voluntary agencies.
6. The earlier university programme had not been able to achieve the desired results as the system could not change its semester system and credit system for students and teachers in favour of work in the field of adult education.[63] The new thrust by UGC, as mentioned earlier, may also experience these difficulties unless timely steps are taken to respond to the needs of the adult education programme.
7. It was envisaged that the programme would receive considerable support from development departments and service agencies. The support was to be received in the form of training inputs at various levels, material and availability of services. However, the linkage between adult education and development could not be effected and support of the development departments was confined only to participation of their experts in the training programmes.
8. The role of mass media was thought to be very important both for motivational purposes as well as for reinforcing the programme in the field. Although this was envisaged, not much could be achieved in a systematic way.

These are some of the problems which the Indian adult education programme is experiencing. The solution to many of these problems will depend to

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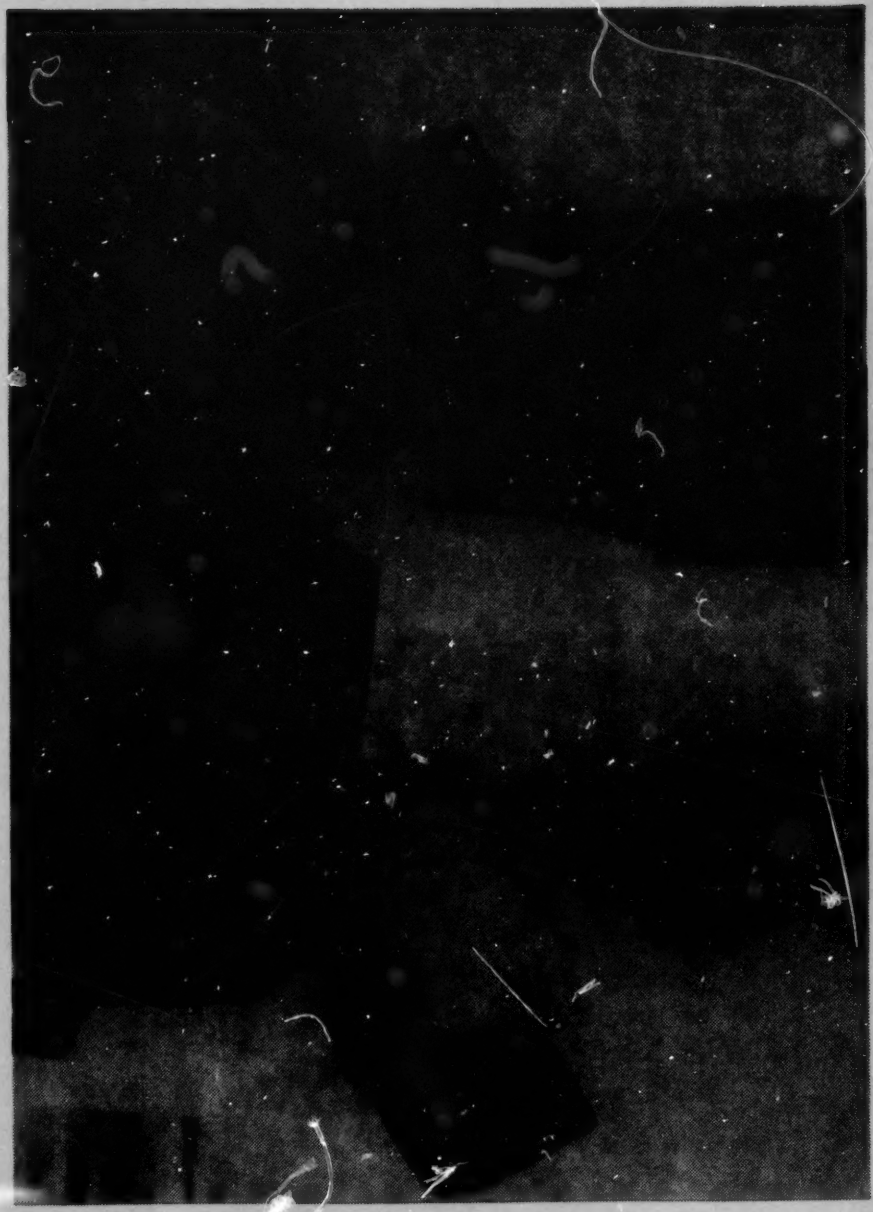
63. An attempt was made to provide for students involved in adult education field work in place of essay writing, etc.

a great extent on the commitment of the adult education workers and the bureaucracy, which is responsible for management.

There have been several success stories where the adult education workers and the bureaucrats joined hands to evolve suitable programmes which have attracted the deprived sections. There is a continuous need to review and learn from the experiences not only from within the country but from outside also.

The literacy programmes of Botswana and Kenya present interesting contrasts in planning. The former was very carefully prepared and a long process of public consultation undertaken before the programme was launched. In Kenya, on the other hand, a firm Presidential decree came in advance of any preparation for a mass programme – which then had to be put together very quickly. Both programmes can point to considerable success with enrolments over very much the same time scale.



Working with illiterates. A literacy group in Botswana.

6. Reflections on the Botswana Literacy Programme (BLP)

by E.K. Townsend Coles

Historical outline: Literacy work is not new to Botswana. Khama the Great in the second half of the 19th century urged adults to learn to read and write and there are numerous references to groups being formed. Christian missions also took up this work, in recent years the most notable initiatives being in Selebi-Phikwe (Central District) and in Ghanzi in the Kgalagadi. In 1977, the Botswana Extension College organised short-term local literacy campaigns in two districts.

In 1978 the Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE) was established as the official arm of the Ministry of Education to undertake work of this kind. (The Botswana Extension College was absorbed into the Department.) It soon became apparent that a first responsibility of DNFE was to tackle the problem of illiteracy not on a piecemeal fashion as heretofore, but *nationally and within a reasonably defined time-frame*.

a. 1979: Year of Consultation

In March, the Minister of Education convened a national meeting to discuss the proposition that a national literacy programme be inaugurated. The meeting was attended by Government and District officials, representatives of churches, trade unions and voluntary organisations. It was unanimously agreed to request the Ministry of Education to take up the challenge.

In May, the Permanent Secretary in Education established a Literacy Policy Group under the chairmanship of the Director of the Rural Development Unit. This group reported in July.

In August a consultation document was widely distributed throughout Botswana (over 2,000 copies were printed). *Kgotla* (palaver) meetings were held to discuss the suggestion that there should be a national literacy programme. The year 1980 was designated as an experimental year and 1981 the commencement of full operations.

Meanwhile, the following actions were taken:

(a) Training a small group of script-writers and producing trial material. Trial groups established.

(b) The search for donors was commenced. Though the programme was included in National Development Plan V, it was incumbent on the Ministry of Education to obtain such outside assistance as it could. In a very short time the programme was fully subscribed for the initial two years.

(c) The literacy programme was discussed with District Extension Teams, thereby involving all the agencies of central and local government, and with community-based Village Extension Teams.

(d) A National Literacy Committee was established.

b. Features of the BLP

(a) It was to be a programme rather than a campaign. From the start, government was told that the total eradication of illiteracy needed time, hence financial provision was made for five years, thereby permitting long-term planning.

(b) A suitable popular slogan was sought and found.

(c) Only the two official languages could be used, Setswana and English. Initially the programme was to be in Setswana.

(d) It was to be a voluntary programme, free to the learners.

(e) Literacy (the teaching of the three Rs) was to be seen as the initial stage to be immediately followed by continuing basic education programmes, in which all extension agencies were to be involved. The literacy material was to be of a kind which would be relevant and interesting for adults. Supplementary readers and games were to be distributed.

(f) Districts and communities would determine how the programme should spread.

(g) Literacy Group Leaders (LGLs) would be chosen by the community and be paid a small honorarium. The teaching method would be simple and easily mastered by the LGLs. An LGL could take two groups if desired.

(h) Learners would decide when, where and how often groups would meet.

(i) The LGLs would be supervised by full-time Literacy Assistants (LAs). An LA would be assigned a maximum of twenty groups. Once a month the LGLs would meet for a refresher morning, and to be paid!

(j) The LAs would be supervised by the District Adult Education Officer who would hold a monthly reunion.

(k) Any agency could organise groups, and many did (prisons, firms, churches, voluntary organisations). DNFE would train the leaders and supply material without charge.

c. 1980: Experimental Year

January:
Trial groups continued.

February:
By mutual consent, five (of the nine) Districts agreed to participate in the experimental year.

April:
Training of 30 LAs.

May/June:
Training continued in districts. LAs were taken to their respective communities (as far as possible in their 'home' region). Meetings were held with Headmen and others.

July:
Recruitment and training of LGLs. Recruitment of learners. 15 learners was the maximum in a group.

July/August:
Group work started and continued until the rains in November. About 7,000 learners were involved.

November/onwards:
Such follow-up as possible at the lands, to which the people migrate during the growing and harvesting period.

November/December:
Detailed evaluation meetings. Revision of all material.

January/onwards:
Printing, stockpiling and distribution of material to districts.

d. 1981: First Year of Full Operations

The annual rhythm was much the same as in 1980, except that an additional ninety LAs were recruited and the programme became nationwide.

Though the programme was national, it had also to be selective. District Extension Teams were requested to determine where, and in what manner, the programme should spread throughout their region, bearing in mind that not everything could be done at once.

It was essential to mobilise all assistance possible to tell people of the programme, generate enthusiasm for it and indeed establish it as a major national effort. To this end:

(a) The Minister of Education made repeated references to it, so much so that Members of Parliament were demanding that the programme should operate in their constituencies. District and Village Extension Teams were equally insistent;

(b) a weekly programme on Radio Botswana was instituted;

(c) the monthly Literacy Broadsheet print-run was increased from 10,000 to 40,000 (the maximum which could be handled);

(d) the DNFE logo was widely distributed;

(e) thousands of posters were distributed;

(f) June 8, 1981 was set as the official launching day. Throughout the day there were special broadcasts, district capitals staged public events, the

government newspaper carried articles, the post office issued a commemorative set of postage stamps.

In 1981 some 30,000 learners were involved. Hardly a 'mass' effort when compared with some countries! But for Botswana, with a population of only 800,000 spread thinly over a country the size of France, with an inhospitable terrain covering half the land and unpredictable means of communication, this constituted a major effort, indeed the first attempt nationally to rid the country of illiteracy.

GTZ sent two consultants to examine the programme in 1981. Their report states that DNFE had achieved a remarkable feat in setting up a national framework for the programme.

The Botswana Literacy Programme continues, recruiting about 30 to 35,000 new learners each year, as well as exercising continuing care for those who joined the programme earlier on. This year an international evaluation of the programme is being undertaken. Only then can one make a reasonable assessment of its success. All that this paper has sought to do is to describe the main events which led up to the establishment of BLP and some of the thinking which lay behind the decisions taken.

The syllabic method in action.

7. The Kenyan Experience

by D. Odhiambo and D. Macharia

a. Introduction

At independence in 1963, Kenya, like most developing countries, found herself with a high percentage of adult illiterates. This was despite many years of effort by various voluntary agencies. Believing that accelerated national development can be achieved only if most of the adults could participate fully in decision-making and in implementation of those decisions, government itself got involved in literacy work in 1966 through the formation of the Board of Adult Education, as a policy making body, which was also supposed to stimulate and coordinate adult education. The following year, the Government also started the Division of Adult Education, within the Department of Social Services, to be the implementing agency. However, those government efforts, like those of the voluntary agencies, did not amount to much.

By 1979, it was estimated that 5 million persons of over 15 years of age were unable to read or write. Three main reasons led to this undesirable situation:

The impact of the literacy efforts was minimal.

Although Government declared free primary education for the first 4 years of primary education in 1974, and this was raised to the entire primary cycle in 1978, not all primary school age children went to primary school. Also many of those who entered, especially girls, dropped out prematurely, thus failing to attain a sufficient level of literacy.

The funds and personnel, allocated to literacy by government were far below what was needed.

b. New Direction in Literacy and Adult Education

In October 1978, H.E. Daniel arap Moi became Kenya's President, following the death of President Jomo Kenyatta. The 1979/83 National development Plan, which was released in January 1979, was aimed at the alleviation of poverty through provision of basic needs. One of those basic needs was adult literacy. Thus on Jamhuri (Republic) Day, 12th December 1978, the President ordered the elimination of adult illiteracy during the current plan period.

Presidential directives in Kenya have the force of law. Suddenly everyone was talking about mass literacy. Government machinery was set in motion to translate the directive into action. Early in January 1979, officials from the two existing units (the Board of Adult Education and the Division of Adult Education) gathered for three days with experts from the Ministry of Economic Planning and Development, the Office of the President and other relevant Ministries and voluntary agencies to map out strategies of implementing the

Presidential directive. In this seminar concrete details based on past experiences, were discussed, analysed and objectified. The scope of the discussions included implications, mobilization, approach, literacy content and curriculum development, the question of language, staff needs, relationship between government and other agencies, etc. It was agreed that the approach was to be a mass campaign covering the entire country, starting slowly and reaching the peak during the fifth and final year. The phasing out of the campaign programme was later revised to conform with the national development plan.

Original Mass Enrolment Plan		Revised Mass Enrolment Plan		
Year	No. of Students	Year	No. of Classes	No. of Students
1979	200,000			
1980/81	450,000	Year 1	8,000	320,000
1981/82	600,000	Year 2	20,000	800,000
1982/83	650,000	Year 3	30,000	1,200,000
1983/84	700,000	Year 4	35,000	1,400,000
1984/85	750,000	Year 5	35,000	1,400,000
1985/86				
Total	4,150,000			5,120,000

As a result of this meeting and other consultations within Government, a full Department of Adult Education was formed early in 1979, first through the amalgamation of the two existing government units involved in literacy, the Board of Adult Education and the Division of Adult Education. But these two units provided only a skeleton staff and the majority of staff had to be recruited. 4,000 full-time staff members were authorised for recruitment including 138 graduate level education officers; 200 supervisory staff; 662 administrative staff (storemen, clerks, drivers, secretaries, typists, audio-visual machine operators etc.); and 3,000 literacy teachers. Funds were made available to hire 5,500 part-time teachers. There were also about 7,000 volunteer teachers. The recruitment exercise was over in the first two years. It took longest as far as education officers were concerned, as these had to be wooed from other employment. Government was also very generous with funds, first to pay for the huge complement of staff and also to pay for the other services. While in 1978/79, the year before the programme was started only Kenya £ 400,000 had been set aside for literacy (increased £ 900,000 midway through the year after the directive), the figure has risen steadily to Kenya £ 4 million in 1983/84. The programme is largely financed by the

Government. However limited support in terms of materials, equipment and training support has been received from local organisations and private firms, and also from international agencies and friendly governments.

c. Objectives of the Literacy Programme

The short-term objective of the literacy programme is to eliminate illiteracy among all adults in Kenya within a specified period and to ensure that the acquired skills are retained and developed further. However the long-term objectives, which follow from the short-term one, include the use of the acquired skills in promoting self-reliance and personal development; inculcation of a sense of social responsibility and respect of socially accepted virtues (e.g. honesty and integrity); promotion of national unity, especially through encouragement of the use of the national language of Kiswahili; and understanding and appreciation of the world at large (especially our immediate neighbourhood) of which we are a part.

d. Organisation

The organisation of the Department of Adult Education is typical civil service, with a strong central administration and professional staff headed by a Director. These headquarters staff members are divided into four divisions: Training and Teacher Advisory Services; Curriculum Development and Materials Production (including post-literacy materials and use of mass media); Budgeting, Planning and Implementation; and Finance and Administrative Services including Field Services Coordination. Each division has its own head who organises and manages the work of the division. Monthly (often much more regularly) meetings of the heads of the divisions, with the Director, review policy and progress. Meetings of the entire headquarters staff are held at intervals. The above organisation is very flexible. Within the last four years of the Department's existence, the structure has been reviewed no less than eight times, with improvements implemented as necessary.

The Field Services are again organised following the normal civil service in Kenya. Education officers are spread in all the eight provinces, 41 districts and 200 divisions. Each one of these levels is supported by an advisory committee of government officers and community leaders. The literacy teachers serve at the village level. There is an average of 74 teachers per supervisor. The education officers and the 200 supervisors at the divisional level perform both academic and administrative tasks. Not only do they ensure that the day-to-day business of teaching literacy is done, they also ensure that materials are produced and that the teachers know how to approach the adult learners.

e. Methodology

Methods of teaching, reading and writing vary from synthetic or formalistic at one extreme to the global or analytic at the other. The method currently used

in Kenya, encourages the use of learners' experiences. Through discussions of subjects of interest, learners are introduced to sounds and words that are most familiar to them. As they progress from the first to the second primer greater emphasis is placed on sentence construction based on topics related to their life and likely to sustain interest.

The teaching of numeracy is also based on experience with the view to stimulate and maintain interest. Initially, the teaching is concentrated on the recognition of numbers and the ability to reproduce them in writing. The learners are then introduced to the basic operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, leading to simple fractions and decimals, and then to the measurements of surface, space, weight, time and money.

From past experience, it is difficult to measure in absolute terms the total length of learning which will result in literacy. Some individuals may become literate in their local language in the space of 3-4 months, while others, through no fault of their own, may take considerably longer. But as a general objective, it is expected that most adults can achieve a reasonable level of functional literacy within 12 months, involving some 300-500 hours of attendance at literacy classes.

f. Training

It has been in the interest of the Department to encourage the training of its staff throughout the country. So far, 3,000 full-time teachers have all undergone a two weeks introduction course. As this is felt not to be adequate for the task ahead, especially in post-literacy, all of them are undergoing a $1^1/_2$-2 year correspondence/radio programme covering 8 subjects. This is in cooperation with the Institute of Adult Studies of the University of Nairobi. Part-time teachers are currently receiving special courses organised during week-ends. The supervisors have been given a two months course at the Institute of Adult Studies, University of Nairobi, while District and Provincial Adult Education Officers took a one month course at the same place. Many officers of the Department have already taken Diploma courses in Adult Education at the Institute. A number of other officers have been to and some still are in overseas countries studying for further degrees in Adult Education and other disciplines. Regular refresher courses, and a course for introduction to new practices, are conducted for different cadres of staff. The basic philosophy behind training its staff is for the Department to produce a cadre of professionals in the field of adult education.

g. Training Institutions

Apart from the literacy programme, but as part of its general role in the provision of education to adults, the Department runs five rural training institutions. Such centres allow training of adults to take place in a concentrated manner.

The ultimate aim is to turn all these institutions into multi-purpose training centres open to all Government departments and voluntary organisations involved in adult education. Over and above this these centres are expected to develop into resource development centres, thus being centres of development of all facets of literacy and adult education.

h. Production of Learning Materials

Literacy teaching is being done in mother-tongues except in places such as towns, plantations, and industrial centres where mixed ethnic groups exist. For the latter, Kiswahili, the national language, is used right from the beginning. The rest master their local languages before switching to Kiswahili. Twenty-two primers and an arithmetic primer now exist in Kenya's main language groups. These have been produced in a series of two weeks workshops consisting of ten to fifteen linguistic experts, Adult Education Officers and experts in the local language under consideration. Production is usually done in the location where the primer would eventually be used. The draft so produced is then pretested before printing for distribution to the classes. Materials at the post-literacy level are also being prepared.

i. Low Cost Materials Production Experiment

Following successful experiments in a few pilot districts on the development and production of low-cost teaching/learning materials, officers at divisional and district levels and their literacy teachers have been trained by their respective regional training teams on how to produce such materials. For the last three years, development and production has been going of relevant posters, flash-cards, pictures, wall-charts and booklets using local materials. It is expected that this will go a long way in ensuring availability of materials suitable to local ideas and based on the felt needs of the local community as well as cutting the costs to the minimum, yet retaining quality.

j. Rural Newspapers

Several years back the Board of Adult Education started *Kisomo*, a rural newspaper in one of the districts in the country. The purpose of starting this paper was and is to provide extra reading materials for the new-literates, inform the local community of the current events, and supply technical and professional information to the local businessmen. The paper has been very successful and has been expanded to cover the whole province. Since the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting has other rural newspapers in other provinces, the Department of Adult Education would not start others of its own in those areas. Instead the Department has taken keen interest in those Newspapers with a view to influencing their involvement in Adult Education and Literacy. Of particular importance is the content of the newspaper and the level at which it is provided.

k. Public Education Programme

Many agencies, whether public, private or voluntary are engaged in the education of adults at various levels. To this effect, special programmes such as those for the farmers produced by the Ministry of Agriculture are broadcast on the Voice of Kenya Radio and to a limited extent on Television. Likewise, the Department of Adult Education has its three special Kiswahili programmes on Radio aimed at public at large. These are 'Education for Life', 'Learn and Progress' and 'What you ought to know'. It is estimated that well over 50% of all programmes on the Voice of Kenya Radio are of major educational value in the continuing education and this percentage is likely to increase.

l. Motivation and Mobilisation

Due to the type of commitment that the Head of State had shown in his address to the nation, politicians, administrators and voluntary organisations were highly mobilized. Furthermore, as the majority of Kenyans were conscious of the importance and need for education, the programme received a lot of publicity from local leaders and public meetings. Initially, the Department had decided to recruit only 200,000 participants for 1979/80 as it was in its formative stage. However, due to the efforts of all Kenyans by December 1979 the number was 415,007. While the usual methods of publicity through public *barazas* and other local media will continue to be used, radio and libraries will particularly serve to inform the public of the available resources and facility including appropriate materials and institutions. It is also important to frequently motivate the decision-makers since the success in literacy campaigns stems mainly from political decisions as well as properly executed programmes. Accordingly, seminars for leaders at various levels are held regularly to discuss with them their role in the campaign. Presently, the Department is also working on two films one for training adult teachers and the other for motivating decision-makers to support literacy.

From its inception the Department has sought and promoted co-ordination and co-operation with other Government Departments and voluntary organisations. Areas of co-operation include workshops to develop literacy and post-literacy curricula, primer writing and staff training. The Department has also enjoyed considerable international co-operation and support during the implementation of the programme in terms of scholarships and materials.

m. Evaluating Literacy Campaigns

When the Central Bureau of Statistics mounted surveys in 1976/77 and 1980/81 in the rural areas, the outcomes indicated that about 46% of the rural population aged 15 and over not attending any school, claimed to be literate in either their language, Kiswahili or English. About two years later, when the Department was created a seminar for all officers in the programme

was convened to draw guidelines for their more meaningful contribution to the literacy campaign. It was in that seminar that an evaluation system of the programme was formulated. Since then there has been a special division in the department responsible for evaluation activities. It has been charged with the responsibility of providing information on the successes and constraints over planning, implementation, dissemination and progress of the programme. The form in which information is obtained ranges from statistical data to case study reports. However, because of their diverse roles, all divisions in the department are expected to have their own inbuilt evaluation systems providing information as needed for planning purposes.

Apart from training headquarters staff in evaluation skills, the Department had earlier decided that the field staff needed such skills even more. Accordingly a nucleus of 25 officers received training in evaluation, and in their turn, have formed regional training teams, which have been training staff at various levels. They also monitor and analyse data before forwarding it to the national headquarters. With this kind of pattern, the Department has already carried out a successful evaluation exercise on the Low-Cost Print Project which was introduced about three years ago.

In Kenya, the application of functional literacy is ensured through integrating literacy with other national development programmes and projects which are defined in the National Development Plan. Each programme or project is evaluated from the point of view of its characteristics, its location, and the mode of local consumption. Different regions of the country carry out their literacy training, especially in the production and development of low-cost materials according to their local occupational functions, geographical location and the language of communication.

When the above factors are looked at carefully, it may be unwise to prescribe a common curriculum or procedure for the whole country.

The assessment of literacy maturity is done by the teacher by determining the learners' literacy proficiency when it is fully felt that the learner has attained the required standard. This assessment includes records of the learner maintained by the teacher.

It is evident that literacy classes when integrated with development and social activities or income generating projects experience better attendance than those without. Drop-outs in such classes are minimal. It is also noticable that there are more women adult learners than men adult learners in the country. One of the main reasons for this state is that problems of motivation are more pronounced among men learners than women. And, in view of the fact, brought about by an on-going evaluation of the programme, the Department decided on a corrective measure, the introduction of 'Men-Only' classes in the Republic.

n. Achievements in the Implementation of the Programme

(1) The Department is firmly established, and has been given adequate acceptance, publicity and support by both the Government and Non-Governmental Organisations. There is enough public recognition of the role and importance of literacy in relation to the development of the country.

(2) During the last four years a cumulative figure of 2 million learners have enrolled in our literacy classes. There is good evidence that those who have gone through the programme look at life differently. They appear smartly dressed, the majority do send their children to school, and many have accepted leadership roles in the community.

(3) Through literacy programmes, thousands of groups have been formed by the learners. In their turn these groups have started income-generating activities, which have been a major motivating factor towards class sustenance, and reduction of drop-outs. These projects have become a major source of extra learning of useful home-making and improvement skills.

(4) Staff training at all levels has been a major source of pride. Not only have we managed to train virtually all our staff in their trade, but in the process they have learned and produced a tremendous amount of teaching/learning materials, both at the literacy and post-literacy level. Experiments in this area continue, especially on how to produce more relevant materials cheaply.

o. Constraints in the Implementation of the Programme

(1) It has not been possible for the Department to live up to its original plan of enrolment drive. Some of the drawbacks affecting the plan have had to do with shortage of resources, food, drought and the negative attitude of some adults, especially men.

(2) 3,000 full-time teachers were recruited as a Government measure to reduce unemployment. The majority were school leavers of 18-22 years of age. It has been observed this cohort lacks enough confidence in themselves and adult students look down upon them as young and inexperienced and therefore not worthy of attention. Of those who were trained early, a good percentage have left to join other Government departments and private sectors for better opportunities. However as these youth grow older, they will be an important resource as they are well-trained and motivated.

(3) Slow bureaucratic machinery has been a drawback over the effective implementation of the programme. It takes a lot of time to recruit senior staff and to have primers produced. This is despite the special place given to this programme.

(4) Though Kenya has a seven years' free primary education policy, and the majority of children enter school, it has not yet declared such education compulsory. This means that the country will still continue to produce illiterate or semi-literate adults from the base, because of those who fail to join primary schools, and the primary school drop-outs before attaining sustainable level of literacy.

(5) There are just never enough funds for nearly everything – books, transport, etc. This is despite a very generous provision by government.

The next case study – from Mozambique – shows that adult literacy may be so bound up with social change that it can emerge as a movement for change even before a programme has been planned.

Literacy groups – a second chance for school drop-outs.

8. The Development of Literacy Programmes in Mozambique

by Rui Fonseca

At the time of Independence (1975) the illiteracy rate in Mozambique was one of the highest in the world – about 90%. Mozambique, a vast country, had then a relatively small population of about 10 million. After Independence, for the first time, the People exercised power. The development of education on a massive scale emerged as one of the principal aspects of the political struggle against underdevelopment – i.e. against hunger, illness, poverty, ignorance and superstition.

The experience of the armed struggle for National Liberation had already clearly shown the importance of giving priority to the upgrading of people's general level of education especially in the case of cadres and soldiers. It was essential to ensure an efficient response to matters of a political and military nature and also to respond to the economic and social challenge which the development and consolidation of the armed struggle represented.

The rapid development of the armed struggle, started in 1964, led to a rapid increase in the number of liberated zones. In these zones the organisation of productive and social life took on new forms. It was necessary to ally victories in the military field with the arduous battle for a change in the relations of production.

The 'Front' for education assumed great importance from this time. New teaching programmes were developed, work and study were integrated, and school was seen as part of the community. School was transformed into an instrument for the development of initiative and the Mozambican personality. It was seen as a means of liberating a new mentality.

Despite the difficult war conditions, it was possible to provide education for about 20,000 children in liberated Mozambican territory. The teachers recruited into the armed forces who had had access to schooling dedicated part of their time to teaching, using the rest of their time for military duties, production of food and adult education.

The persuance of the armed struggle itself demanded the upgrading of training for political and administrative cadres. These people were at the same time soldiers. The direction of each unit and each community was entrusted to them.

Literacy training was carried out by teachers and students from the FRELIMO secondary schools. These schools were situated in Tanzania. The students spent part of their time in the liberated zones.

During the period of transitional government led by FRELIMO and prior to the proclamation of National Independence, 'dynamising groups' were created throughout the country. These groups represent democratic and popular power. Part of their work was to give priority to literacy programmes.

As a result of FRELIMO's drive, thousands of Mozambicans threw themselves enthusiastically into literacy and schooling. Despite the lack of adequate textbooks and without any central guidance or planning, popular initiative encouraged the growth of the campaign and a wide section of the population participated – statistics gathered later indicate that more than 500,000 people learned to read and write at this time. The majority of these people were in urban and semi-urban areas where the lack of human and material resources was not as great.

As a result of accumulated experience it was decided in 1977 that there should be massive campaigns on a national scale. The campaigns were to be directed principally towards workers and cadres employed in sectors of vital importance in the struggle against social and economic underdevelopment in Mozambique.

The high level of illiteracy and the consequent small number of skilled citizens able to teach literacy at the adult level, plus the spread of the rural population and the problems of teaching in Portuguese, meant that wiping out illiteracy would have to be carried out in stages.

The central objective of literacy training and adult education is to liberate creative initiative in our workers. It is to guarantee access to basic, elementary, technical and scientific knowledge. Its purpose is to provide the analytic tools which will allow full and enthusiastic participation in the building of a socialist society in our country

Literacy training should contribute to the development of a national conscience, a Mozambican personality, reinforcing the ties of National Unity.

The use of Portuguese as the medium of communication would permit ordinary Mozambicans to identify themselves more with the struggle for economic, social and cultural Independence.

Those sectors of population involved in the literacy campaigns are by order of priority:

Members of political and administrative structures and members of the defense and security forces

Members of mass democratic organisations (Mozambican Women's Organisation, Mozambican Youth Movement)

Factory workers

Workers in industrial and commercial firms

Workers in agricultural enterprises

Workers in production cooperatives

Additionally, it was planned that all citizens who successfully completed a literacy course (approved in one of the literacy campaigns) should join further literacy campaigns (called Adult Education campaigns). This would prevent, on the one hand a return to illiteracy and on the other hand would guarantee that some of the adults who completed Adult Education courses, would be able to continue their education at the secondary level in the general or technical spheres.

Various sectors of society have been continually urged to take an active role in ensuring the success of the campaigns. In 1981 the Council of Ministers issued a law which stipulated the participation of every sector of the economy in the organisation, control and planning of adult education activities. At the same time responsibility was defined for the attainment of targets.

Political and union organisation in the economic sectors compete in a particular way to ensure the mobilisation and organisation of workers to take part in and regularly attend Adult Education Centres.

a. Training of Personnel

As a result of the massive scale of operation and the fact that most of the teachers are volunteers – the training of teachers is organised in the following way:

a short, initial training period at the local level

pedagogic support to the adult education teacher in the places where he teaches. Support is given by Provincial and District staff.

In order to implement the above, the following strategy has been adopted:

(a) At the district and provincial level a corpus of administrative personnel has been brought together. Their task is to train people in the field of adult education and literacy teaching.

(b) Develop plans of study and curriculum for the training of literacy volunteers and instructors. Courses to last 15 to 30 days.

(c) In every Province there is a permanent centre for the training of personnel in adult education and literacy. There are trained teachers able to give pedagogical support at the District and Provincial level. The latter are also responsible for in-service training courses for volunteers and adult education instructors.

(d) An attempt has been made to provide teaching staff capable of training literacy volunteers to work in the largest sectors of production. These sectors have priority.

(e) Training of new literacy volunteers and adult education instructors is necessary every year, in order to replace people who drop out.

(f) Weekly radio programmes have been prepared to give support to the literacy teachers.

A small number of the personnel (3 at provincial level and 1 at district level) have merely organisational and administrative duties. The others spend their time teaching (training and in-service training of literacy volunteers), inspection, giving teachers advice and in-service training for volunteers and adult education instructors.

On a voluntary basis every year thousands of people are trained. They attend courses which last 15 days — 1 month. These courses take place at training centres at a provincial level or in various localities at the district level. The basic educational requirement to become a volunteer is 4th class (primary education).

b. The Role of Schools

A large number of recruits for the literacy campaigns are drawn from secondary schools. Those students in their final year of primary school may also be eligible.

Each school has its own adult education sector. The main task of this sector is to plan and monitor the involvement of teachers and students in the campaigns. Each school annually defines targets for training and placement of volunteers and adult education instructors.

The schools should firstly assist the nearest industrial and commercial sectors and the closest residential areas. This assistance is arranged through contracts and agreements signed between school boards and the different sectors, or the local residents' representatives.

c. Advice and Assistance to Staff

The training methods and the fact that the Instructors also received intensive training has made it essential to organise a system of 'teacher' support. This system operates at all levels as far as possible and on a continual basis.

Small self-help groups of volunteers were created. Volunteers and adult education instructors, living in the same geographical area, come together to prepare lessons.

Brigades were formed to guide and monitor activities. Radio programmes have been produced to give advice and support, and various types of seminars and re-training programmes have been instituted. Volunteers and adult education instructors have access to teachers' notes and those notes are used as well by those involved in training.

A literacy newspaper was created called 'Always Study'. This is written for those who have just acquired literacy skills. The newpaper's objective is to stimulate interest and pleasure in reading and to inform people of aspects of national life.

d. Results of Evaluation

According to the latest census, the illiteracy rate was reduced from 90% in 1975 to 74% in 1980.

From 1978, the year in which the first national literacy campaign started, until 1983 1,000,000 literacy students enrolled voluntarily. 260,000 completed their course successfully.

	1978—79	1980	1981	1982
Enrolled	more than 260,000	324,000	310,000	200,000
Successfully completed course	140,000	120,000	60,000	40,000

As can be seen from the above statistics there has been a decline in the number of successful literacy students.

An analysis of the results of the literacy campaigns reveals the following:

(a) The first campaign has shown the best results. It lasted 15 months, motivation was high and much support was mobilised. Moreover, a large number of people on the courses already possessed a knowledge of Portuguese: some could even read and write a little. And the campaign concentrated on sectors of organised labour.

(b) In the subsequent campaigns there was a decline in the results. Courses were shorter (9 months) and the percentage of students from rural zones was increased progressively. A lot of people who joined the course had little or no knowledge of Portuguese. Their motivation to study was not as strong, owing to their economic, cultural and social situation. It is also thought that there has been excessive centralisation of the campaign in its administrative aspects and also as far as course content is concerned. Other factors which have caused problems include:

- the objective conditions have worsened owing to constant attacks by South Africa;
- difficulties of adjusting the study timetable to the agricultural year;
- the study programmes, curricula and teaching within the campaign were inadequate owing to inexperience in implementation of a campaign on such a large scale;
- the materials tested were inadequate namely in respect of:

  insufficient change of teaching methods in relation to the socio-cultural and economic background of the literacy students;

difficulties in use of a methodology for the teaching of a second language;

inadequacy and limited abilities of teaching personnel;

low level of education of permanent staff and especially of the volunteers and adult education instructors.

In spite of the above factors the results attained are significant seen in relation to the difficulties confronted and show a degree of popular mobilisation and involvement which has meant a constant improvement in the level of training.

Accumulated experience of this period with its successes and difficulties have constituted a basis for the formulation of the subsystem of adult education, part of the National System of Education which was implemented in 1983.

9. A Note on the 'Literacy Situation in the Spanish-Speaking Countries of Latin America'

by César Picón Espinoza

The situation of literacy in the Spanish-speaking countries is quite complex. According to the most recent statistical data of 18 Latin American and Caribbean Spanish speaking countries – see Table 4 – the most outstanding points are the following:

(a) Of a total population of 230,990,000 persons, there are 44,927,555 illiterates, with an average illiteracy rate of 19.45%.

(b) Taking the illiterate population as a whole, the situation of the women is the most critical as 22.28% of women are illiterate. Obviously, this percentage is higher in the case of the women living in rural areas. The percentage of male illiterates is 16.55%.

(c) The Spanish-speaking countries have a high percentage of rural population, with an average of 42.97%.

(d) From the preceding observations it can be inferred that the illiteracy rate is much higher and more concentrated in the rural areas than in the urban ones; and it is the female population where the problem of illiteracy is the most severe.

(e) The problem of illiteracy is not, evidently, the same for all the Spanish-speaking countries. For statistical purposes government bodies only take the 15 and more years old cohort into account. However, in the social practice of adult education of many countries, it is usual to work with children from the cohort of 10 to 15 years old. The experiences of Nicaragua and Dominican Republic clearly show this point.[64]

The illiteracy rates for the period 1980—2000, are presented as statistical projections in Table 5.

If the countries undertook an extraordinary effort, incorporating a dual strategy of literacy and post-literacy, the illiteracy rate would descend from 20% in the eighties to 10% at the end of this century. That would represent a decrease in the absolute number of illiterates of two millions in 50 years. There were 38 millions of illiterates in 1950.

To start the XXIst Century with a deficit of 36 million illiterates is not an ideal situation, but even to reach that point the Spanish-speaking countries would

64. See the reports presented by those countries to the *Regional Seminar on National Literacy Strategies*. UNESCO-OREALC, Quito, Ecuador, 1981.

have to make an extraordinary and continuous effort. Significant changes would have to take place within the countries concerned – though they can't be clearly envisaged yet – in order to reach goals beyond the projections indicated in Table 5, that are also quite optimistic and in themselves demand an enormous effort.

With the exception of Cuba and Nicaragua, the fact that many Spanish-speaking countries have considerably decreased their illiteracy rates is more due to the expansion of the formal educational system than to adult education itself, which has not been very relevant in the majority of those countries quantitatively. However, the great impact of adult education in the Region is in the qualitative dimension, because it is becoming an instrument to encourage, inspire, provoke, accelerate and emulate as part of the process of finding answers to the whole range of educational problems within each different society.

Table 4: Population and Illiteracy in Spanish-Speaking Countries

Country	Illiteracy 1980 (%)			Total Population 1981	Rural Population 1980 (%)
	Male	Female	Total		
Argentina	4.7	5.8	5.3	28,080,000	17.6
Bolivia	4.7	41.8	31.4	5,750,000	67.0
Coasta Rica	7.6	8.4	8.0	2,270,000	56.6
Colombia	14.2	16.2	15.2	28,780,000	29.8
Cuba	8.9	8.9	8.9	9,770,000	34.6
Chile	6.0	9.2	7.6	11,290,000	18.9
Dominican Republic	25.0	26.8	25.9	5,430,000	49.0
Ecuador	17.9	23.9	20.9	8,640,000	55.4
El Salvador	30.2	37.0	33.6	4,940,000	58.9
Guatemala	41.4	56.5	49.0	7,480,000	61.1
Honduras	36.1	38.5	37.3	3,820,000	64.0
Mexico	13.8	20.2	17.0	71,190,000	33.3
Nicaragua	–	–	–	2,820,000	46.7
Panama	12.6	13.9	13.3	1,940,000	45.7
Paraguay	10.5	17.3	13.9	3,270,000	60.6
Peru	11.2	27.5	19.4	18,280,000	32.6
Uruguay	5.2	5.0	5.1	2,930,000	16.0
Venezuela	16.0	22.0	19.0	14,310,000	16.7
Total Average	16.61	22.29	19.45	230,990,000	42.47

Source: *UNESCO Statistical Digest*, UNESCO, Paris, 1982, 330 pp.

Table 5: Statistical Projections of Illiteracy Rates for the Population of less and more than 15 years old, for the rest of the 21st century

Year	Total population (millions)	Population less than 15 years	Population 15 years and more	Illiteracy (millions)	Illiteracy % 15 years and more
1980	366	151	215	43	20.0
1990	473	195	278	38	13.7
2000	612	249	363	36	10.0

Source:

'Quantitative evaluation and projections of matriculation of the educational systems in Latin America and the Caribbean. ED-79/MINEOLAC/REF. 2-1979'.

Demographic analysis of educational situation. CELADE/ST/ECCA/CONF. 10 L 8. 1962.

Learning in a literacy group. Individual guidance instead of classroom teaching.

10. Literacy and Post-Literacy: The Situation in Malawi

A Position Paper by Government of Malawi, National Centre for Literacy and Adult Education, Ministry of Community Services

a. Background

With a population of approximately 6 million people of an average density of 64 persons per square kilometre, Malawi is chiefly an agricultural country. 91.6% of the population live in rural areas.

Malawi's major development objectives as stipulated in the Development Plan drawn soon after the attainment of independence in 1964 and further stated in the development policy statements are:

first and foremost expansion of agricultural production;
improvement of internal communications;
expansion of secondary and post-secondary education;
stimulation of enterprise for industrial growth.

The development objectives aim at (I) increased agriculture production and (II) improvement of the living standard particularly of the rural population.

Administratively the country has 24 districts divided into three regions: Northern, Southern and Central. Traditionally, people belong to several different language groups, but Chichewa is being officially promoted as the national language.

Closely connected with a very complex socio-cultural situation, illiteracy in Malawi is indeed a major problem. The experience of the last few years holds many lessons for future action, notably the fact that literacy programmes have to be viewed from the perspective that education is an essential component of development; that development objectives cannot be fully reached without education, and that education in turn is influenced by the development processes. It is an indisputable fact that a literate environment is an important condition for achieving developmental objectives. Although the important role of literacy is fairly well recognised politically, owing mainly to the country's immediate concern with economic reconstruction soon after independence in 1964, literacy programmes could not receive priority in terms of financial allocation, organisational structure and operational strategies.

b. Literacy Policy and Strategy

The formal school system has received the highest importance in the area of educational development in Malawi since independence. This was due to

the social, economic and historical necessity that priority attention had to be paid to expansion of the primary education system.

The immediate emphases in educational development however were:

- to provide the necessary inputs into the secondary education system to meet the manpower needs of the country's economy; and
- to provide the educational substructure on which the overall social and economic development of the country must be based.

The primary education system, among other things, was considered an important means to establish and ensure permanent literacy. The specific objective of the primary education plan of 1973—80, was to raise the national enrolment ratio from 33.5% to 50% by 1980 and at the same time lower the pupil teacher ratio. Compulsory universal primary education was not however aimed at during the period (1973—80) as more attention had to be given towards improving access to and efficiency in existing primary as well as secondary education.

According to the World Bank's appraisal of the Third Education Project of 1973, the national enrolment in grades 1-5 was equivalent to 60% of the children aged 6 to 10. Enrolment in grades 1 to 8 was equivalent to 56% of all children 6-13, which was 6% higher than the projected plan of 50% by 1980. Despite this achievement, only 29% of these students entering the 1st grade completed the full eight year course. 37% of the children entering primary school completed the first five years of primary education – five years of primary education being considered enough to obtain permanent literacy. Less than 5% of the school age children were in full-time secondary education according to the World Bank reports.

Malawi has had a strong tradition of self-help which has proved to be of enormous value in supplementing the efforts initiated by the government. Accordingly, government policy has generally been one of encouraging local committees to assume the responsibility for expansion and strengthening of primary education under aid provided by the government. This has enabled the communities to construct more and better primary schools. In order to boost community efforts, the government has constructed prototype primary schools as models to be replicated by the communities.

c. Literacy for Adults

Literacy and adult education have lagged behind as compared with development in other areas of Malawian nation building, including the formal school system. In a population estimated at 5.6 million the incidence of illiteracy among adults (people aged 15 years or more) is rated at 75%, according to 1977 census survey.

The past adult literacy efforts being limited in scope, ad hoc in nature, and traditional in their approach, did not have a significant impact. Between

1968 and 1976 a total of 1,303 literacy centres were established in which 17,525 adults enrolled but only 12,268 were made literate. The instruction imparted was of less practical value to the learners than was expected. The lack of response to the programme was due to defects in policy, irrelevant content, inappropriate methods of teaching, lack of appropriate materials, inadequate training for personnel and above all a lack of appropriate structure for planning, management and operationalisation.

Thus while national efforts to promote literacy in Malawi date back to pre-independence in 1962, Malawi's overall efforts were limited. Adult literacy has been an isolated activity carried out as a departmental concern. Divorced from the national development priorities, such programmes could hardly make much impact on the incidence of literacy. Promotion of literacy to subserve the developmental objectives is recognised as an important consideration.

Malawi has had no previous experience with functional literacy linked to national development strategies. Therefore, it was essential to proceed carefully, by systematically developing experiences and building capacity in the area of adult literacy and post-literacy by mounting programmes to be implemented in phases. Technical assistance was therefore requested from UNDP and UNESCO to help the country in its initiative to launch pilot projects as a first step towards a nation-wide programme to eliminate illiteracy. These projects were based on recommendation from a consultancy mission which visited Malawi in 1979, and which were accepted by the Government, UNDP and UNESCO. A pilot project has since been mounted. The strategy proposed is progressive development of national capabilities through the implementation of functional literacy centres on an increasing scale.

During the first phase which was constituted of two years (February 1981 to February 1983) and which represented action preparatory to the implementation of the main pilot project in Phase Two, emphasis has been placed upon pretesting of certain concepts, methodologies related to functional adult literacy; developing instructional materials; evolving methods of training of personnel and field staff; and development of planning and organisational structures.

During the second and implementation phase the emphasis will shift to the development of carrying capacity for a full-scale national literacy programme and to the creation of a literate environment in rural areas to preserve and promote learning on a continuing basis.

d. A Foundation for Reading Among Adults

An aspect of every literacy programme without which success is impossible is reading material. In recognition of this fact, a curriculum for functional literacy has been prepared which integrates the interests of adult learners with national development goals and the teaching of reading and arithmetic skills.

A package of instructional materials has been produced in Chichewa in order to fulfill the course objectives. These materials are intended tc be used during an organised ten month period of literacy course. They consist of a primer, accompanying teaching charts, set of flashcards and an instructional guide. A supplementary reader is recommended for use in literacy centres after the primer has been completed in the first six months.

e. Creating an Environment for Continuing Education

Malawi faces two significant challenges in order to move the endeavour to eradicate illiteracy forward. The first is to make the ability to learn to read and write available to all of its citizens who whish it. The second is to create an environment wherein reading skills could be used, can be reinforced and extended and where people can find useful information even in the remotest of rural areas. This task is enormous. It requires directing a considerable number of resources to the most inaccessible regions of the country. It necessitates suitable reading materials particularly in Chichewa. It means making the best use of materials, services and organisation already in existence and creating those which are required but not yet available.

f. The New-literate Reader

As already noted, the majority of the country's people live in rural areas; and this is also true of adult illiterates over 15 years of age. There are more female illiterates than males. Most of these of both sexes are farmers. Some own and operate small businesses involving by way of example, the sale of home-cooked foodstuffs, the sale of garden produce at local markets, or repairing of bicycles, radios or farm tools.

The illiterate, semi-literate and new-literate populations consist of people who have had different experiences with education. A vast majority have never been to school. Some have had partial schooling and learned to read a little. Others learned to read at one time in their lives but have forgotten the skills owing to disuse or lack of access to printed material. Other groups have learned through adult literacy classes or have taught themselves.

g. The Existing Infrastructure for Promoting Literacy

As has been mentioned, one characteristic of societies with a high illiteracy rate is the lack of an environment wherein learning through reading can take place. The rural areas are conspicuous by the absence of written communication, posters or outdoor advertising. Rural adults hardly find an opportunity or necessity in order to use many government services; a thumbprint is still an acceptable signature. Many signs which otherwise might be read, even on government buildings, appear in English. Nevertheless many organisations have an educational dimension built into their programmes and services

to reach the country's rural population with messages and information which are important to people's well-being.

A wide range of printed communication is produced by departments and agencies within various ministries. First of all, there is the Ministry of Community Services itself. Ever since Independence, Community Services has been responsible for adult literacy work and has assisted literacy centres everywhere in the country albeit on a small scale, to teach reading and arithmetic. This ministry has also produced a magazine, *Uthenga wa Sukulu za Kwacha*, which is directed at new readers. Since the beginning of functional literacy programmes in 1981, Community Services has had a dominant role to play. The National Board for Literacy and Adult Education, established under Community Services, has the task of co-ordinating the efforts of literacy and post-literacy at the national level. In order to provide the widest possible consensus with regard to literacy policy, the Board comprises members from a wide range of development agencies. The Board's policy is implemented by its technical and executive body, the National Centre for Literacy and Adult Education. The National Centre has produced the curriculum and materials for the aforementioned functional literacy course and will be responsible for co-ordinating the post-literacy programme and assisting in the preparation of easy-to-read materials for new readers.

Ministries like Agriculture and Health have extension aids branches which produce booklets printed in Chichewa primarily for field assistance, but also for the adult learner directly. The Ministry of Agriculture produces *Za Achikumbi*, a periodical intended for smallholder farmers.

Transport and Communications provides services to people in rural areas by means of agencies like the Post Office. Rural dwellers may have to complete Post Office forms and read instructions to hold a postal savings account or to send and receive money from relatives. Local Government often posts notices announcing elections and tax information, market opening times and various rates changes.

The Ministry of Education and Culture, besides helping to educate the nation's children, has at its disposal numerous physical facilities which are used as primary and secondary school buildings; in most cases these represent the only community based learning centres and common meeting places. These are, as everywhere, grossly underused. However, they do serve as centres of learning for adult literacy and post-literacy.

The National Library Service provides a network of libraries and is willing to purchase books in Chichewa and direct them to literacy centres as part of their service to many parts of the country. This aspect of work has considerable scope to be strengthened. Malawi Broadcasting Services and the Department of Information in the Office of the President and Cabinet, have forceful and basically development oriented radio programmes, a rural press which issues a monthly *Boma Lathu*, a newspaper to meet the needs of readers in rural

areas. *Malawi News*, a weekend newspaper, also carries a Chichewa supplement which is useful to people who had a rudimentary ability to read and write.

Many organisations such as churches and mosques as well as charitable groups, also try to reach older learners through print. *Moni* magazine represents one such effort. Several religious presses publish information in Chichewa such as Likuni Press, Popular Press Baptist Publishing and Montifort Press.

Commercial enterprises likewise act as a source of appropriately printed texts. Dzuka Publishing is one such company with a list of Chichewa publications. Sophisticated advertising and certain series which seeks mainly to inform, can also be worthwhile for neo-literates to read. For example, the National Bank of Malawi prints attractive booklets in the national language explaining its services in simple terms.

Thus, there are numerous possibilities on which to build the foundation for a literate rural environment, so as to make learning a continuing possibility where there is a demand and necessity to use written communication. The aim is to fully utilize all of the resources available at present at the same time as to fill in the gaps with new mechanisms for the promotion of learning.

h. Structures

National Board for Literacy and Adult Education

Promotion of literacy is now being regarded as a national concern involving all the key development departments, ministries, academic bodies and non-governmental agencies. Hence, it became important to have an institutional framework within which policy decisions could be taken, intersectoral coordination effected, and issues related to financing and resource mobilisation settled. While the primary responsibility for overall planning and administration of the programme rests with the Ministry of Community Services, a National Board for Literacy and Adult Education has been established to assist with these processes.

National Centre for Literacy and Adult Education

A National Centre for Literacy and Adult Education has been established to serve as an executive arm of the National Board. As a national resource base, the Centre is to provide technical guidance and professional support to the programmes, in the form of:

curriculum development;
development of literacy methods as well as basic literacy and follow-up instructional materials;
orientation and training of personnel;
supervisory support;

monitoring, evaluation and research;
promotional measures and documentation and information services.

The National Centre is also responsible for administering essential to the execution of the programme. The National Centre for Literacy and Adult Education has, besides a National Coordinator, a nucleus of specialist staff for curriculum development, training, research and evaluation as well as support services for printing, reprography and documentation. Specialised government agencies and organisations such as Ministry of Education's teachers' colleges and Malawi University National Literacy Service, are involved in developing activities and contributing to technical inputs by the centre.

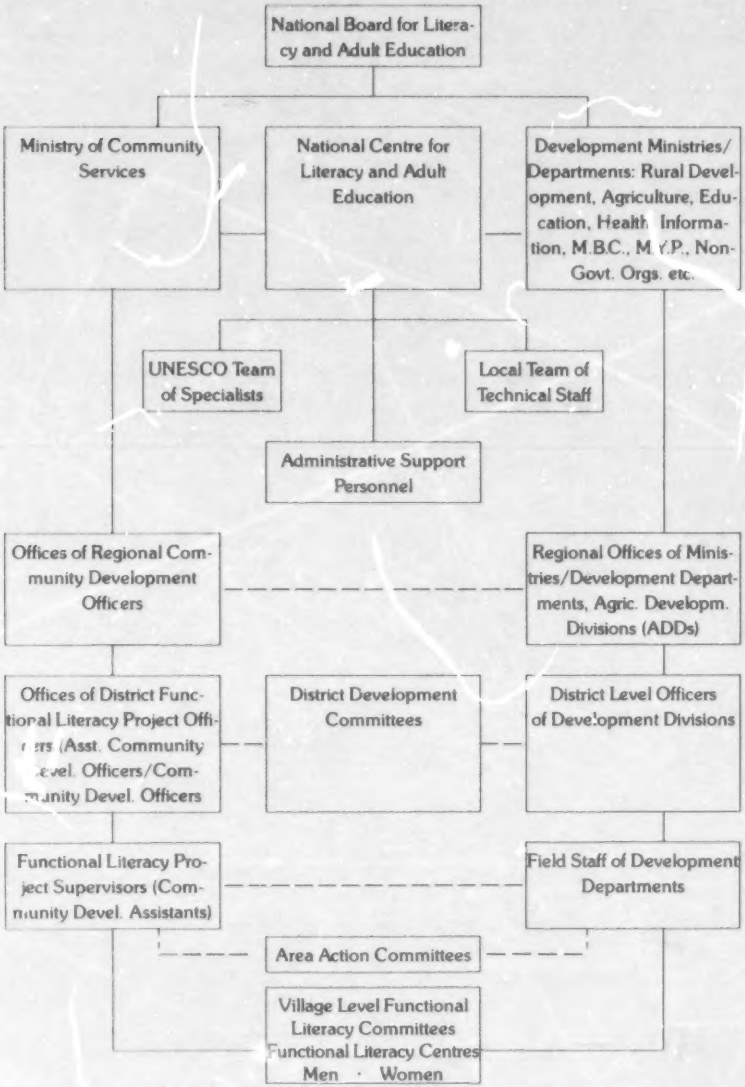
The administrative and organisational structure of the literacy programme is illustrated in the Functional Chart I. The hierarchical structure for the implementation of the literacy programme can be seen in Functional Chart II.

i. Organisation of Programmes

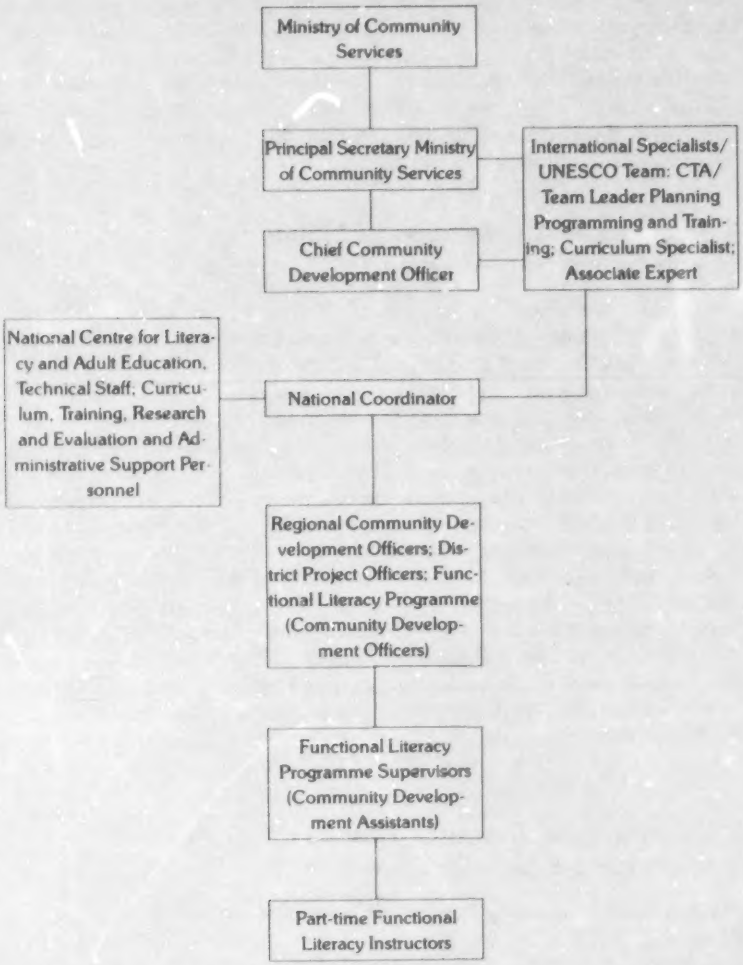
The programme operation envisages the organisation of Functional Literacy Centres for men and women separately. Each Centre is to have not more than 25 and not less than 15 participants taught by an Instructor, 4 times a week in two hourly class sessions. The content of the programme is based on the major thrusts of national development, environmental needs and interests of learners. The messages woven in literacy and numeracy lessons relate to agriculture, home economics, community participation, child care, health, religion, nutrition, personal accounts and other everyday concerns of individuals living in rural settings. The literacy lesson topics are expected to be reinforced with relevant knowledge and information by the technical field assistants from Agricultural Development Divisions and Districts who supplement the instructional role of the FLP Instructor.

Crucial for the success of the literacy and post-literacy programme is people's participation in planning, implementing, and monitoring its progress. Village-level Functional Literacy Committees are constituted in villages where centres operate. At the district level the District Development Committee under the chairmanship of the District Development Commissioner, assumes the responsibility of planning, coordination and operation of the programme. For all practical purposes, the district is a key project unit for planning and administration of the programme; the District Project Officer assumes overall responsibility for management and coordination. The District Officer is assisted by a team of supervisors each in charge of 30 to 40 FLP Centres in a contiguous area. Involvement and participation of other agencies based in the district and serving the social and economic needs of the people such as Malawi Young Pioneers (MYP), religious and reputable social organisations and educational institutions, is enlisted. Although not many such agencies exist the programme seeks to make many more partners in running literacy and post-literacy activities.

Functional Chart I: Government of Malawi Functional Literacy Programme (FLP) – Administrative and Organisational Structure


National Board for Literacy and Adult Education
Ministry of Community Services
National Centre for Literacy and Adult Education
Development Ministries/ Departments: Rural Development, Agriculture, Education, Health, Information, M.B.C., M.Y.P., Non-Govt. Orgs. etc.
UNESCO Team of Specialists
Local Team of Technical Staff
Administrative Support Personnel
Offices of Regional Community Development Officers
Regional Offices of Ministries/Development Departments, Agric. Developm. Divisions (ADDs)
Offices of District Functional Literacy Project Officers (Asst. Community Devel. Officers/Community Devel. Officers
District Development Committees
District Level Officers of Development Divisions
Functional Literacy Project Supervisors (Community Devel. Assistants)
Field Staff of Development Departments
Area Action Committees
Village Level Functional Literacy Committees
Functional Literacy Centres
Men · Women
Represents line of coordination for forging support
Represents line of direct communication for flow of decisions

Functional Chart II: Government of Malawi Functional Literacy Programme (FLP) – Hierarchical Structure


Ministry of Community Services
Principal Secretary Ministry of Community Services
International Specialists/ UNESCO Team: CTA/ Team Leader Planning Programming and Training; Curriculum Specialist; Associate Expert
Chief Community Development Officer
National Centre for Literacy and Adult Education, Technical Staff; Curriculum, Training, Research and Evaluation and Administrative Support Personnel
National Coordinator
Regional Community Development Officers; District Project Officers; Functional Literacy Programme (Community Development Officers)
Functional Literacy Programme Supervisors (Community Development Assistants)
Part-time Functional Literacy Instructors

j. Facilities

There are no specific physical structures for conducting literacy and post-literacy activities. Any common village meeting place convenient to learners such as a school building, church, shady tree, or an improvised shelter is decided to be used by the village people. In some instances people have been able to construct their own shelters. It is proposed to use the physical structures of 22 model primary schools and adult education centres constructed with IDA assistance (World Bank) for community based learning and a network of Rural Growth Centre complexes developed in the countryside to provide essential services and amenities to rural dwellers, also for post-literacy and continuing educational activities.

k. Stucture and Utilization of Monitoring and Supervisory Personnel

The overall monitoring and supervisory control of adult literacy and post-literacy rests with the National Centre for Literacy and Adult Education under the Ministry of Community Services. The National Centre, besides a team of international personnel, has Planning, Programming and Training, a Curriculum Specialist and Associate Expert officer each for curriculum and materials, research and evaluation, and training. Services of a Planning officer, publication and reprograph staff, and general administration are also available to the Centre to manage and execute the project. At the regional level three Regional Community Development Officers have the responsibility for coordinating, monitoring and supervising the project. Each of the three districts has a Functional Literacy Project Officer; this number is being increased to eight in the second phase of FLP, when the coverage is extended to eight districts. Aside from the government personnel for technical supervision and administrative management, Functional Literacy Committees at the district level monitor day-to-day progress and facilitate action. Progress is monitored through periodic reports as well as by field visits by the officers and the National Centre. As the programmes expand the number of personnel to manage, monitor and supervise will increase to match the requirements.

l. Decentralised Resource Bases for Literacy and Continuing Education

In planning and organising literacy and post-literacy activities the concept of developing decentralised resource bases at the district project and supervisory area level and diversification of learning activities at the village level is proposed. Starting from the grass-root level the village Functional Literacy committee will have the main responsibility in taking the initiative, managing and running the activities which could take initially several different forms such as

Reading places
rural literacy service
radio-listening forms
wall newsbulletins
discussion groups
training-cum-demonstrations
celebration of functions and festivals.

Basically village schools, and available common meeting places could be the starting point. The model primary schools and adult education centres, the Rural Growth Centres complexes would provide better venues for such community based learning. The literacy instructor assisted by voluntary teacher or an educated volunteer identified by the village committee may have to be guided by the supervisor together with the project officer in organising activities decided by the village Literacy Committees.

The level of area supervisor who is expected to provide supervisory support to 30 to 40 centres is another level which is proposed to be suitably equipped, with teaching-learning materials, paper, production facilities, transport and storage facilities. At the moment, however, the District being the key unit, the District Project officers are intended to be strengthened to extend resource facilities to supervisors, and through the supervisors to the village literacy committees, instructors and volunteers. The project officers, apart from having the physical resources of teaching/learning materials, transport, low cost printing/duplicating facilities, visual aids, and equipment and such facilities needed to assist the supervisors in their task of organising literacy and post-literacy activity will also have a key role in mobilising, coordinating the educational activities of different developmental, educational, commercial and non-commercial organisations and media agencies which operate in the project area. In other words the District Project officer will identify the underutilised, unutilised, and potential resources both of men and materials which could be used in both making literacy favourable environment as well as in conducting literacy and continuing educational activities.

At the national level the National Centre for Literacy and Adult Education assumes the major responsibility of technical direction, printing and production facilities, training of personnel, and ensuring delivery of supplies and equipment. The Centre for all practical purposes interacts in resource mobilisation with other government departments and specialised agencies such as MBC (Malawi Broadcasting Corporation), National Literacy Service, Rural Press of the Information Department, Extension Aids Branch, Health Services, Teachers Colleges, National Library Service and Malawi University. In planning, programming and implementation of literacy and post-literacy activities the National Centre under the policy directives of the National Board establishes internal cooperation with such agencies and their programmes.

In the process of decentralising the resource bases and in planning diversified post-literacy and continuing educational activities the Malawi Government needs considerable help to solve the longstanding problem. It needs funds for paper and printing vast quantities of easy to read materials, for paying to instructors and supervisors, for building and maintaining a national production centre and training facilities for its personnel engaged at various levels in literacy and post-literacy efforts.

m. Concluding Remarks

The struggle against illiteracy is one of the greatest development challenges before the country. This is a complex undertaking. Fortunately the will to meet the challenge is slowly growing. The government and its commitment to literacy for development, the interest of the people and the goodwill of the international agencies are a positive impetus for the programme. The initial experience has provided a battery of tested structures and methods. It is now possible to envisage intensification and some expansion of the programme steadily to spread over other districts. The task during the coming months is to intensify environment building activities and create conditions so that 'new literate' and the 'old literate' find opportunity of participating in continuing learning. For that purpose what is endeavoured is that young people and newly literate adults must be able to use their basic skills for purposes which have clear meanings both for them and for the national goals.

Discussion among professionals: The price of literacy.

Appendix II

The Price of Literacy

from 'Literacy, Depression and the Poor'

by R.H. Green

It is important to be precise when discussing the price of literacy. It is necessary to differentiate among three main components:

adult literacy campaigns and continuing programmes;

universal primary education;

adult education building on literacy – whether secured from literacy programmes *per se* or via primary education.

Of these the first is the least expensive and the second the most. Assuming an initial 50-60% illiteracy rate and a serious commitment to reduce it to under 20% within a decade, the peak annual cost of the first could be 1% of GDP or 4% of government spending and perhaps half as much on average over the decade. A broad based, diversified adult education programme would probably cost about as much by the end of the decade – its cost would rise as the per cent of literates wanting to use it rose while the cost of literacy campaigns declined. UPE's cost could be of the order of 1.5 to 2% of GDP (6 to 8% of government expenditure).

The total cost then comes to 2.5 to 3% of GDP (10 to 12.5% of government spending). Initially that total will have higher capital – primarily buildings – and adult literacy campaign components and later larger recurrent – primarily salaries – and continuing adult education shares. However, it is a fairly good measure of the cost of starting toward achieving and sustaining basically universal functional literacy in a country with a GDP of less than $ 1,000 per person. In a less poor country the cost might – relative to GDP and government spending – be lower, but that depends on what standards of buildings, equipment, materials and salaries are considered to be necessary.

These are, it should be stressed, minimum realistic cost figures. They assume part-time literacy and continuing education personnel whose payments are relatively low increments to their basic salaries (and, not inconsequentially for many, enhanced status and respect by the communities and persons they teach). Equally they assume maximum use of existing facilities (e.g. night classes in primary and secondary schools), economizing on buildings and equipment, avoiding massive cadres of bureaucrats and other specialist support staff. If these conditions are not met the cost could easily be two or three times as high.

A mass campaign, short duration adult literacy programme in a country with 60-75% starting literacy – e.g. Cuba, Nicaragua – can be faster and, perhaps, substantially less expensive. If a high enough priority is given, very large numbers of students and teachers can be deployed for extended periods to teach adult illiterates. In such cases – which require a starting level of literacy over 50% and state ability to deploy large numbers of people to unfamiliar places and vocations – the real cost is not the food and lodging of the trainers but the opportunity cost of their time. If the contact with poor people and rural communities is seen as socially and politically valuable, then the opportunity cost of disruption of formal education may be viewed as quite low in comparison to the literacy, social consciousness and political solidarity gains.

In many poor countries primary education and literacy now receive 5 to 7.5% of government spending and 1.5 to 2% of GDP. Therefore, the proposed levels would require a 50 to 100% increase in real terms. With few exceptions the proportionate increases required in literacy and continuing adult education would be of the order of 200 to 400%, i.e. programmes 3 to 5 times their present size.

These magnitudes suggest four things:

1. the proposed shift is not marginal but major;
2. but it is not beyond the range of shifts in government resource and GDP allocation that frequently do take place in response to altered contexts or priorities;
3. phased change will usually be more practicable than overnight shifts;
4. international support to ease transitional costs can be critical to starting the process of change and sustaining it until an adequate domestic 'constituency' to render it self-supporting has emerged.

However, it is always deceptive to consider costs only at the level of shares in national product or government spending. Quite specific resources: personnel, teaching materials, equipment, buildings, foreign exchange are needed. These may prove to be bottlenecks even when finance and a decision to commit it to literacy are available. On the other hand, they may render literacy oriented spending less difficult and – in opportunity costs measured in respect to what else has to be foregone – less costly than most other spending programmes.

Full-time personnel take time to teach. That often determines how fast a UPE programme can be pushed ahead. In some – but no longer so very many – countries there is a scarcity of adequately prepared entrants to primary or basic adult teacher training. However, in general both in respect to supply of trainees and cost/duration of training literacy poses less problems than most sectors.

Part-time personnel require training – even if they are primary teachers – if they are to fill their essential role as the backbone of adult literacy and

continuing education. However, the training need not be very long – devising it seems more often a problem than providing it once designed. Assuming that fees are seen as an addition to an existing (whether primary school or nursing or agricultural extension or public works or secondary school) salary and community standards are such as to make holding such a post socially desirable, candidates will exist. Further, their opportunity cost is low – their literacy and continuing education work really is an addition to their productivity rather than a substitution for what they are now doing.

Teaching materials and equipment are critical to the effectiveness of programmes. Teaching reading with no books or bookkeeping with no paper or pencils is rather difficult. Further the materials need to be appropriate – to the context and to the audiences (i.e. illiterate or nearly literate adults are not, and should not be taught as if they were, primary school children). In general these inputs are absolutely scarce and need to be held to minimum critical budgets, e.g. closed circuit video will normally be out and slide projectors may be because of budgetary and foreign exchange limitations.

Buildings – but not elaborate ones – are critical for UPE. For adult education the basic classrooms should be in buildings (e.g. schools, clinics, churches) otherwise empty in the late afternoon and evening. Given simple construction – and enough community support to mobilize a self-help component in construction work and materials – neither the foreign exchange nor budgetary demands should be insuperable.

Foreign exchange is likely to be the tightest constraint. But few programmes have as low an import component as carefully designed literacy work. Paper (if not locally produced), some books (albeit mass use texts can and should be printed locally), certain equipment, fuel to keep co-ordinating personnel mobile, a few bits and pieces for buildings. These are critical but should not exceed 5% of programme cost.

Thus on balance literacy work has fairly low opportunity cost. It can operate largely by increasing supply of resources (e.g. part-time teachers, voluntary construction labour) and using domestic resources which are not usually scarce (e.g. primary school teacher candidates, local construction and furniture inputs).

Toward Cost Efficient Programmes

Efficiency is primarily an adjective. No literacy programme can be considered efficient unless it *enables children and adults to become literate, to remain literate and to utilize/build on their literacy*. If it does not do that, the resources devoted to it are wasted and it is cost inefficient even if it is cheap. However, the inverse is true – in the context of limited resources available (or made available) for literacy, every expenditure that is not necessary for achieving, maintaining and building on literacy in fact robs some illiterate person of

the opportunity to become literate or some newly literate person of the chance to build on his literacy by further study. In the face of poverty, waste is a sin and the merely desirable must be seen as expendable.

The following comments are by no means comprehensive and may not be applicable in all contexts since they are based primarily on twenty odd years in Sub-Saharan Africa. They relate to the three dominant heads of expenditure in literacy work: personnel, buildings and furniture and materials.

Personnel for adult literacy and continuing education should be primarily part-time. Cost, availability and – at least for continuing education – competence all point in that direction.

For adult literacy campaigns any person with complete primary education or above is a prospective trainee literacy teacher. In practice primary school teachers, clerks, nurses and similar middle level personnel (assuming there is a network of some basic administration and services in rural areas) can provide the backbone of this cadre. If genuine mobilisation for literacy has been achieved – including among the students and their communities – teaching literacy will add to the dignity, respect and self-image of the teachers; usually very important to people in these positions. As they are rarely either well paid or starving, a fairly modest honorarium is likely to attract significant numbers of candidates. However, training is necessary. None of the candidates – including, especially, most primary school teachers – can be assumed to know how to work with adults seeking to master literacy. Given very large numbers of dispersed trainees, short term, intensive decentralized courses need to be devised and carried out – their absence being a not infrequent defect in adult literacy work.

Continuing adult education can – and usually must – depend on part-time personnel as well. Here any person with a specialized skill or a fairly complete secondary education is a potential candidate. In rural areas – especially in Africa – it may be necessary to ensure that most of the potential candidates become actual teachers if each village is to have at least one or two classes a year and some change of subjects between years. Quite apart from cost, efficiency of teaching counsels this approach. The most effective agricultural education is likely to be given by an agricultural extension worker, the best history teaching by a secondary school teacher, etc. if they are provided training in educational methods (which is rare even in semi-teaching professions like agricultural extension and some branches of nursing) and in not talking down to nearly literate students (a flaw sure to 'turn off' the students' minds and attendance). Again intensive decentralized short-term training seems most practicable. The same considerations on non-material benefits apply as for adult literacy teachers albeit honoraria will normally need to be higher because of the conventional educational pattern of paying faculty in accordance with the entry qualification required of their students and/or of themselves not the difficulty of value of the job they are doing. (This is not a very plausible pay

principle on educational grounds, but it is so entrenched that trying to break it as a side effect of literacy work would usually be rash and counter-productive.)

A variant of this approach – especially for full-time, relatively short, residential continuing education courses (e.g. Tanzania's Folk Colleges and Rural Training Centres) – is to utilize non-literacy specialists as teachers in courses related to their own areas of expertise as part of their normal work programme in their own ministry or institution. It may theoretically be splitting hairs in such a case to argue whether the cost is for literacy or agricultural extension. However, practically speaking it will normally increase the resources which have a positive impact on literacy by drawing on more institutional votes and build up the institutional constituency backing literacy (even if the agricultural or water or building or forestry personnel would not express their support in terms of literacy or even continuing education as such). At commitment level literacy advocates may well need to be 'simple as doves'; when 'playing the budget game' to mobilize resources it behoves them to be 'wise as serpents'.

However, especially if the backbone of adult literacy and broad continuing education personnel is part-time, there is a need for a specialized cadre of adult educators. Co-ordination, leadership, inspection, training, syllabus development and revision, programme design, material preparation and research do require full-time specialists. While the numbers need not be large – 250 to 500 may well be ample for a fairly large (5 to 20 million) poor country – trying to cut corners here is likely to prove expensive.

UPE is another area requiring full-time personnel (albeit their being full-time in UPE allows them to be part-time in the other two strands of literacy). Their training (or retraining) should, if at all possible, be integrated with that for adult literacy and continuing education teaching. In addition to its direct relevance, such integrated training should have a tendency to build in an understanding of and commitment to syllabuses which relate to the needs of the majority of students who will, in fact, not go on to 'main line' formal secondary education but – once UPE has been established for ten years – will be the main source of broad continuing education students.

Buildings (and furnishings) are another area in which costs can be controlled without major damage to the efficiency of literacy work evaluated in its own terms. The key themes are the use of local materials, simplicity and community self-help mobilisation.

UPE requires classrooms – at least in the long term though other rooms (e.g. churches, community centres) can be used while these are built. It also may require teacher housing (and is certainly facilitated by its availability). These should be seen in the light of multiple use for adult literacy and continuing education work which are usually best scheduled for late afternoon and evening when primary schools are otherwise vacant.

Local materials, simple semi-standardized designs, and construction techniques not requiring high inputs of specialized skills or capital equipment are appropriate to primary schools and teacher's houses. (This is doubtless particularly true in rural areas but it is *not* irrelevant to most poor country towns and cities either.) This approach both reduces total cost and import requirements and permits mobilisation of community labour and construction materials which can reduce both the government budgetary and the opportunity cost very significantly. The stress should be on community labour (including semi-skilled and organizer labour) and locally available materials *not* cash to buy materials not available locally. Cash is precisely what poor communities and people lack; underutilized time (at least seasonally) is what they can contribute *if* they see literacy as relevant to their needs. (If they do not the literacy advocates need to consider why, not assume the answer is 'conservatism', 'ignorance' or 'false consciousness' even though these may be some part of it.) Furniture and maintenance of buildings and furnishings are analogous to building *per se* in terms of scope for cost reduction.

Materials pose rather different issues. In most poor countries they are a relatively scarce resource and are import intensive. They do not receive an adequate share of budgeted resources and are in inadequate supply. In addition real questions often arise as to their appropriateness.

Teaching and related materials – whether texts or outlines or 'manuals relating to continuing education courses – should be domestically planned, written and printed. This allows (even if it does not guarantee) maximizing relevance and minimizing foreign exchange costs. It may or may not allow lower unit cost in budgetary terms.

Because more such materials – and more supplies such as pencils, paper, workbooks, ect. – are needed, it is important to avoid excess cost while maintaining serviceability. Glossy paper is usually a quite inessential use of money; printing on very flimsy paper may be a false economy if the result is illegibility and/or disintegration on first handling. Diagrams, charts, maps, pictures can be critical to the pedagogical value of a text – random photographic plates unrelated to the written material are usually a waste of money. Precisely because *more* funds devoted to materials are usually needed for efficiency of literacy work, it is critical to ensure that they are deployed only on what is relevant, properly designed and necessary.

Appendix III
Programme

Sunday, 16 October

15:00 – 15:45 **Opening of the Seminar**

Welcome by Anil *Bordia*, Chairman of the Seminar

Opening address by Dieter *Danckwortt*, Director, Education, Science and Documentation Centre, German Foundation for International Development (DSE), Bonn

Opening address by Yusuf *Kassam*, Director of Programmes, International Council for Adult Education (ICAE)

Introduction to context and programme of the seminar by Josef *Müller*, Non-Formal Basic Education Section, Education, Science and Documentation Centre, German Foundation for International Development (DSE), Bonn

15:45 – 16:15 Break

16:15 – 18:30 **An Overview of the World Literacy Situation: The Situation, Some Major Issues and a Word to Donors**

Presentation by Arthur *Gillette*

The Literacy Situation in Spanish-Speaking Countries
by César Picón *Espinoza* (CREFAL, Mexico)
Reactions:
Felix Seth *Konu* (AFROLIT)
A. *Lizarzaburu* (Peru)
R. *Gugnani* (India)
Wolfgang *Küper* (GTZ)

19:00 Dinner

20:00 Welcome Party

Monday, 17 October

09:00 – 10:30 **The Power of Literacy**

The Campaign Approach
by H.S. *Bhola* (Indiana University, Bloomington, USA)

Panel Discussion – Participants in the panel:
Manzoor *Ahmed* (UNICEF)
Paul *Wangoola* (African Adult Education Association, AAEA)
Udo *Bude* (German Foundation for International Development (DSE))
Herbert *Bergmann* (German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ))
Heribert *Hinzen* (German Adult Education Association (DVV))

11:00 – 12:30 Group Work on Approaches towards Literacy

13:00 Lunch

15:00 – 16:00 Group Work continued

16:30 – 18:00 Reporting Back Session on Group Work

18:15 Dinner

20:00 Opera: Orpheus and Eurydike by Chr.W. Gluck
or
Reggae Concert 'Kid Creole and the Coconuts'/New York
Eissporthalle, Jaffestraße

Tuesday, 18 October

09:00 – 10:00 **Literacy, Depression and the Poor:**
!rrelevant Expenditure or Urgent Necessity?
by Reginald Herbold *Green* (University of Sussex)
Panel Discussion – Participants in the panel:
Yao *Zhongda* (Ministry of Education, Beijing)
Paul *Wangoola* (AAEA)
Jorge *Padua* (El Colegio de México)
Plenary Discussion

11:00 – 12:30 **The Perspective of Women**
by Jennifer *Riria* (Kenyatta University College, Nairobi)
Panel Discussion – Participants in the panel:
Augusta *Henriques* (Ministry of Education, Guinea Bissau)
Ms Kumud *Bansal* (Ministry of Education and Culture, New Delhi)
Ms Kasama *Varavarn* (Ministry of Education, Bangkok)
Plenary Discussion

13:00 Lunch

14:30 – 16:00 **Post-Literacy and Continuing Education**
Cooperation in the Field of Post-Literacy
by Shri Anil *Bordia* (Development Commissioner, Jaipur/Rajasthan, India) and
Ravindra H. *Dave* (Director, UNESCO Institute of Education, Hamburg)
The Tanzanian Case
by Z.J. *Mpogolo* (Ministry of Education, Dar es Salaam)
Discussants:
Kowit *Vorapipatana* (Ministry of Education, Bangkok)
Shri D.V. *Sharma* (Directorate of Adult Education, New Delhi)
David *Macharia* (Ministry of Housing and Social Services, Nairobi)

16:30 – 17:30 Plenary on Post-Literacy

17:30 – 17:45 Information on the Cooperative Evaluation Project of the UNESCO Institute of Education (Hamburg)
by R.H. *Dave*

17:45 – 18:30 **Supporting Literacy**

I. Technical Assistance: Experiences in Cooperation

1. The Botswana Case
by J.R. *Swartland* (Ministry of Education, Botswana) and Inge *Eichner* (GTZ)

2. The Nicaraguan Crusade
by Roberto Sáenz *Arguello* (Vice-Ministerio de Educación de Adultos, Nicaragua)

18:30 Dinner

20:00 Study Visit to Literacy Groups at Mehringhof, Berlin-Kreuzberg

Wednesday, 19 October

09:00 – 10:30 **Supporting Literacy contd.**

Plenary Discussion contd. on
- The Botswana Case
- The Nicaraguan Crusade

11:00 – 13:00 Group Work on Cooperation

13:00 Lunch

Afternoon free for shopping
and/or

14:00 – 17:00 Guided sightseeing tour to Berlin; bus departure from conference centre
Dinner in town (not arranged by DSE)

21:00 Bus back from station 'Bahnhof Zoo' to conference centre

Thursday, 20 October

09:00 – 10:30 Reporting Back from Working Groups
Supporting Literacy contd.

11:00 – 12:00 II. Panel Discussion on Cooperation in Training

Participants in the panel:
Josef *Müller* (DSE)
Daudi *Nturibi* ((UNICEF, Nairobi)
Edward *Ulzen* (AAEA)
Gabriel *Carron* (IIEP)

12:00 – 13:00 III. Cooperation for Literacy among International, Intergovernmental and Non-Governmental Organizations
by Malcolm *Adiseshiah* (Madras Institute for Development Studies)

IV. Cooperation for Literacy among Developing Countries
by Manzoor *Ahmed* ((UNICEF, New York)

13:00		Lunch
14:30	– 16:00	Plenary Discussion on Issues and Problems of Cooperation
16:30	– 18:00	Plenary Discussion contd.
18:00	– 18:30	**Reporting on the Seminar** Information by Paul *Fordham*, Head Rapporteur
18:30	– 18:45	**Closure of the Seminar**
19:00		Dinner-Reception given by Dr. Dieter *Danckwortt*, Director, Education, Science and Documentation Centre, German Foundation for International Development (DSE)

Friday, 21 October

09:00	– 13:00	Meeting of the Literacy Committee of the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) Chairman: Anil *Bordia*
		Departure of Participants

Appendix IV
List of Participants

1. International, Intergovernmental and Non-Governmental Agencies

African Adult Education Association

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AFROLIT

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Arab Literacy and Adult Education Organization

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Canadian International Development Agency

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Centro Regional de Educación de Adultos y Alfabetización Funcional para America Latina

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International Institute for Educational Planning

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International Labour Office

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International Reading Association

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UNESCO

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UNICEF

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Nyi *Nyi*
Director, Programme Development & Planning Division, UNICEF
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2. Developmental and Adult Educational Agencies from OECD Countries

Canada

Canadian Organization for Development through Education

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National Director, Canadian Organization for Development through Education
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Federal Republic of Germany

Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation (BMZ)

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Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation, Education Section (221)
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German Adult Education Association (DVV)

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State Ministry of Education

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Great Britain

The British Council

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Norway

Norwegian Agency for International Development

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Sweden

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3. Third World Countries

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Botswana

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Asia

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Syria

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Thailand

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Kowit *Vorapipatana*
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Latin America

Nicaragua

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West Indies

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4. Subject Matter Specialists

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5. Head Rapporteur

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Mrs. Sylvia von *Pagenhardt*
Administrator, Non-Formal Basic Education Section
John *Chackochan*
Non-Formal Basic Education Section

APPENDIX V
The Organizing Institutions

1. The International Council for Adult Education (ICAE)

The International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) is the major non-government body working on a world-wide basis in the field of adult education. It came into being in 1973 in response to the need for a cooperative network of mutual support for advocacy and promotion of the education of adults. The ICAE comprises over 70 national and regional member associations; as well, it works in cooperation with United Nations agencies, such as UNESCO and UNICEF, with non-governmental organizations that share its aims, with inter-governmental bodies, voluntary groups, universities and research and training institutes.

The Council's small Secretariat is located in Toronto, Canada, but its work is carried out in all regions of the world through member associations, networks and collaborative projects that are supervised by persons in various countries. Its central activities focus on research, information exchange, training, and advocacy on behalf of adult and nonformal education. These are undertaken by the organization of international seminars and workshops, comparative studies in various topics, the journal *Convergence*, and occasional papers and reports.

The ICAE is not a funding body nor does it operate or fund programs of adult education work in a country. As a partnership of individuals and associations, its role is to support and strengthen that partnership and mutual support so that adult educators can themselves be learners and be more effective in carrying out the work that needs to be done for a more just and human-centered development. It is funded through projects to strengthen the knowledge-base of the field and cooperation among individuals and groups, through member contributions and donations.

Programs of the ICAE relate directly to issues and needs identified through member associations and practitioners as areas where more information, collaboration and networking is needed. These include Participatory Research, Primary Health Care, the Participation of Women, and Worker's Education. Projects are underway on Literacy Campaigns, Popular Culture, China Cooperation, Indigenous People, Mass Radio Learning Groups, Comparative Study of Socio-Economic Determinants of Adult Education, and the Role of Adult Education in the Alleviation of Poverty. International networks have formed around such topics as Peace, the Older Adult, and the New Technologies.

The consideration and setting out of broad lines of policy and development for the ICAE is the responsibility of the General Assembly of the full member-

ship, which, since 1979, takes place within a three-year period. For the first seven years, it was held annually. The locations have been Germany, Tanzania, India, Costa Rica, Canada, Switzerland, and Finland. In 1982, the General Assembly took place in Paris, in October, in conjunction with an International Conference.

The founding Secretary-General was J. Roby Kidd, who, after six years in office, became treasurer and senior consultant. Since June, 1979, this position is held by Budd L. Hall, who is aided in these responsibilities by an Associate Secretary-General, Chris Duke of Australia. Julius Nyerere, President of the Republic of Tanzania was the first Honorary President; since 1981, this role is undertaken by Luis Echeverria, a man active in issues of international development and former president of Mexico. Malcolm Adiseshiah of India guided the ICAE as President for six years and was succeeded by Robert Gardiner of Ghana.

Aims and Objects

As set out in its Constitution, the aims and objects of the Council focus on the importance of the learning of adults in a variety of forms and dimensions, seen in relation to the healthy growth and development of individuals, communities and societies. As the expression of the principles of adult education, the ICAE is a means of helping individuals and groups to gain the kinds of knowledge, skills and competencies they need to participate more fully in achieving a more just and equitable economic, social and cultural development, a development that is truly human-centered. In carrying this out, the ICAE works for the implementation of the UNESCO Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education.

Equally central is the Council as a means of enhancing international understanding and world peace. Since the organization operates as a partnership of colleagues from all compass points of the world – North and South, East and West – it offers an international forum for debate and dialogue about how the experiences and achievements of adult education can contribute to the alleviation of the critical issues that limit the lives of most people of the world, particularly the persistence of entrenched poverty and its resulting exploitation and inequities.

A major aim of members of the ICAE is to improve and strengthen the indigenous capacity of adult education as a coherent force within a country, and of practitioners, through the building of effective national associations of adult education. This 'capacity-building' effort is the central program of the Council. In this way, men and women within a country can be recruited, trained and supported to be the kind of adult educators who work and serve the actual needs of their people. Strong and cooperative associations, with practitioners in the forefront, can ensure the ongoing promotion, development and coordination of adult education, of human and material resources, and of more

active liaison with those working in other sectors, such as agriculture, health, literacy, employment skill development, the advancement of women, and training and research.

From work at the national and local level comes the further coordination and sharing that can take place at the regional level. The growth in national associations, from some 25 in 1973 to over 60 in 1981, has contributed to the strengthening of regional associations in Africa, Europe, Asia and the Pacific, and the creation of new regional bodies for the Caribbean, Latin America and the Arab region.

Structure of the ICAE

The aims of the ICAE are translated into action through its members which *are* the Council. Member associations are those that have a capacity to be truly national/regional in scope and range of activities.

The ICAE does not have an individual membership base. It encourages practitioners to be active in their own organizations or, if no national association exists, to work with others to bring such a body into existence.

But, whether or not an adult educator belongs to an association, he or she takes part in regional and international activities through *Networks* of colleagues who come together in an informal way around a particular topic or issue. Networks have developed within the ICAE's work in a somewhat spontaneous way and often as the result of people meeting at international and/or regional seminars. Networks are 'clusters' of people with specific common interests who want to get together and to share ideas and experiences. It is from the activism of those involved in a particular area that many ICAE programs and projects have emerged; for example, participatory research, women in development, primary health care and popular theatre. The participatory research network has developed, over some three to four years, into autonomous regional 'teams' which try to meet internationally at least once a year.

There are three major and elected bodies that control the affairs and activities of the Council: the General Assembly, the Executive Committee, and the Bureau of Officers.

1. The *General Assembly* is the gathering of the entire membership for the purpose of consideration, evaluation and delineation of the broad lines of policy. Each member association is represented by one delegate. The General Assembly convenes once within a three-year period.

2. The *Executive Committee* is the responsible governing body accountable to the General Assembly and elected to it for a three-year term. The Committee comprises nine 'ordinary' members elected by the General Assembly from the full membership; Vice-Presidents who are nominated

by the accepted regions of the Council; the elected President, immediate Past-President, the Vice-Presidents, and the Treasurer. The Committee appoints the Secretary-General of the Council. It convenes at intervals no longer than one year's duration.

3. The *Bureau* is the collective group of Officers and the Secretary-General.

2. German Foundation for International Development (DSE)

The German Foundation for International Development (DSE) was founded in 1959 and charged with the task of fostering relations between the Federal Republic of Germany and other countries on the basis of a mutual exchange of views and experiences in the field of development policy. DSE discharges this statutory function within the framework of Federal German technical assistance aimed at supporting the economic, social, and cultural advancement of developing countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America.

In collaboration with national and international partner organizations at home and abroad, DSE has been conducting for over twenty years now program events enabling managerial personnel and specialists from over 100 countries of the Third World to engage in an exchange of views and experiences on problems and aspects of international development or undergo advanced training relevant to their professional tasks.

DSE program events take the following form:

conferences, meetings, seminars, symposia, expert consultations and panels, serving the exchange of experiences at national and international level, and usually of short duration;

training courses for specialists and, above all, managerial personnel of Third World Countries; and

colloquia for German experts who are actively engaged in the field of development policy in one form or another.

In accordance with the development concept of the German Federal Government the areas of priority of DSE's work programs are as follows: improving the planning and the organization capability of developing countries in the fields of administration, business and industry, and education; combating unemployment and underemployment; improving the infrastructure in rural areas; promoting the development of work- and environment-oriented education systems; and expanding and diversifying the industrial sector.

The awareness that the education system of a country must be aligned to its social, economic, and cultural needs has led many developing countries to introduce major educational reforms designed to gear their curricula more closely to environmental and development objectives. The significance which

the German Federal Government attributes to education and science within the framework of cooperation with developing countries is reflected in the DSE programs. The activities of the DSE Education, Science and Documentation Center focus principally on two areas, namely:

basic in-school and out-of-school education, above all in the rural areas of Sub-Saharan Africa; and

universities and scientific research.

Within these two fields the Center undertakes the following tasks:

transfer of adapted techniques of educational planning and educational management, in particular in the sphere of basic education curriculum development and evaluation;

development of institutional infrastructure, above all in the academic and scientific sectors; and

collection and analysis of documentary material on educational reform and the development of the sciences.

In pursuit of these aims the DSE Education, Science and Documentation Center organizes seminars, study tours, conferences, and training courses, working thereby in cooperation with specialized institutions in the developing countries in order to ensure that the approach does not become one-sided.

For the German Foundation for International Development the Udaipur and Berlin Seminars were logical steps in its involvement in literacy and post-literacy activities which the Foundation has systematically pursued since 19[illegible]. The Foundation will continue its activities in the field of literacy as a member organization of the International Literacy Committee and the International Council for Adult Education. In its training activities in the field of nonformal basic education the Foundation will concentrate on short-term workshops on problems of curriculum development and evaluation and the production of low-cost teaching and reading materials. A medium-term training program with focus on the anglophone countries is under preparation.

Despite these activities the German Foundation is not a literacy organization. Literacy is only one field of its activities, the Education, Science and Documentation Center in Bonn only one of its Centers. However, the German Foundation is aware that literacy is a decisive factor in the liberation of man and a necessary part of a national strategy for overcoming poverty and injustice which is one of the major problems of our world. We endeavor to contribute towards the solution of these problems.